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THE STATUS OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA IN THE 1980s AND PROSPECTS FOR THE 1990s: MODALITIES OF POLICY CO-ORDINATION AND IMPLEMENTATION BY SOCIAL SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

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PART ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. The African continent in the 1980s was characterized by a deep and continuous socio-economic crisis of unprecedented dimensions. Thus, the impressive achievements of the post independent Africa of the 1960s and part of the 1970s were either lost or seriously eroded during the decade of the 1980s. The dramatic decline in practically all facets of Africa's socio-economic development scene was the consequence of a dynamic interplay of internal and external factors. On the endogenous side there was, for example, persistent and severe natural disasters, compounded by civil wars and the various types of political instability. The situation was further exacerbated by perennial structural imbalances and weaknesses and domestic policy failures, evidenced, among other factors, by failure to address the pressing question of continuously declining agricultural production, and unprecedented population growth rates. On the exogenous side, global recession and adverse terms of trade, among other factors, have heightened the economic dependency of the continent on an inhospitable world economic system. The chronic balance-of-payments crisis and the worsening external debt problems are expressions of that dependency reality. In the last few decades, for instance, agricultural exports have declined sharply by more than 3 per cent a year. As a result, the share of African exports in all world trade fell from 2.4 per cent in 1970 to 1.7 per cent in 1985. Despite the rapid rise in oil prices by 25 per cent in 1989, the fall in export prices for non-fuel commodities had devastating effects on the economies of a number of countries. In the face of declining commodity prices, many African countries resorted to heavy external borrowing to sustain levels of expenditures made possible by earlier booms. Sub-Saharan Africa's debt has grown faster than that of other developing regions.

2. Even though there was a modest upturn in the African economy in 1989, the general trend was a continuous and persistent decline in economic activity and a negative growth in GNP between 1980-1987. Moreover, sub-Saharan African countries have now witnessed almost a decade of falling per capita incomes. The constraints on production, coupled with misguided economic policies, have resulted in continuing food crisis and diminishing self-sufficiency ratios, which have caused miseries to millions of African people. The consequences of food shortages have meant an increasing dependence on food aid and rising food imports. In 1986, one out of every five Africans depended on his/her survival on food aid.

3. The intensification of the African socio-economic crisis in the 1980s called for some forms of adjustment and recovery measures in most African countries. Thus, by 1987, almost 60 per cent of all countries in Africa were implementing conventional structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) supported by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. These programmes in turn have had catastrophic effects on the African social sector because of their preoccupation with, for instance, balance-of-payments equilibrium. Consequently, such critical areas of social development as health, education, employment, food and nutrition, among others, declined precipitously as the governments were forced to drastically cut expenditures on a sector so vital to sustained growth and development and long-term structural transformation. The main objective of this report is, therefore, to discern the salient features of 1980s crisis on Africa's social development scene and to reflect on the possible perspectives and prospects for the 1990s. Towards this end, the report is divided into two major parts as follows: Part one briefly reviews the inter-related issues of population, education, health and nutrition, employment, income and poverty vulnerable social groups in society and finally, the structure and function of the African family. Part two is concerned with perspectives for the 1990s, modalities for policy co-ordination and

policy implementation by social sector institutions. This part also offers some recommendations and summaries and concludes the report.

I. POPULATION DYNAMICS

4. In recent years, the rate of African population increase has been greater than in any other world region. This increase primarily results from the accelerated growth rates in Eastern and West Africa and which are expected to reach a peak of 3.1 and 3.3 per cent in the 1990s, respectively. The population of Central Africa is also contributing significantly to this high growth rate which shows an increase from 1.9 per cent in the first half of the 1980s to 2.9 per cent in the period between 1985-1990. With an overall growth rate of 3.01 per cent in the 1990s, Africa's total population is expected to double in about 23 years.

5. The distribution of different age groups in a population determines the dependency ratio, i.e., the extent of the burden on people of working age to support the very young and the very old. African countries have the highest dependency burden, with almost 50 per cent of the population being below 15 years. Despite fluctuations between the regions, the African child population, aged 0-14 years, constitutes about 44 per cent of the total population. Although the number of children has been increasing steadily in Africa, their proportion to the total population has been declining since 1970 following changes in fertility. In Africa, the youth population represented 19.1 per cent of the population in 1980. This percentage declined to 19.0 per cent in 1990 and is expected to rise again to 19.5 per cent in the year 2000. According to World Population Prospects, aging is not an immediate concern in Africa. The elderly population comprised 3.2 per cent in 1990 and is expected to reach 3.3 per cent in 2000. An inevitable concomitant of a heavily youthful population (dependency burden) is the fact that it exerts undue pressure on already limited and overstretched infrastructural facilities, especially education, health and housing.

6. Life expectancy is very low in Africa. Four countries still have a life expectancy of less than 45 years. Only 20 African states have achieved a life expectancy of between 50 and 60 years, and only 11 countries reached figures above 60 years. Moreover, the highest infant mortality rate for 1980-1985 among the major areas of the world were, for instance, 116 per 1,000 births for Africa and 83 for Asia. However, there are slight subregional variations in Africa. The North and Southern African regions have already achieved more in improving life expectancy and reducing infant mortality rates.

7. Eighteen per cent of the African population lived in an urban place in 1985, whereas for the other least developed countries, it was 16 per cent. All three of the least developed countries, with more than half of their population living in an urban place, were in Africa: Cape Verde, Djibouti, and Guinea. Since 1975, Africa has experienced the fastest rate of urbanization in the world. From 1975 to 1985, the African urban population increased by more than 70 per cent. The urban African population is growing at 5 per cent, the highest in the world. Despite variations between regions, there is an observed rapid increase in the proportion of urban population, from less than 32 per cent in 1985 to more than 40 per cent by the year 2000. In North Africa and Southern Africa, it is expected to reach almost half and more than half of the total population respectively. This observed increase is primarily due to high levels of rural-to-urban migration.

II. THE STATUS OF EDUCATION AND LITERACY

8. A great deal of effort went into the development of formal and non-formal education during the first decade and a half of post-independent Africa. Heavy overall investments in physical, human terms and financial resources were allocated to the sector. Unfortunately, the ensuing benefits have not been commensurate with the enormous cost incurred. Moreover, weaknesses from the colonial educational policy and their persistence during the first two decades of independence have strongly left their imprints on the status of education and the African States' attempts at reform and expansion in the 1980s. These circumstances prepared the ground for rapid deceleration and deterioration in the educational system in the last decade.

9. As a result of demographic pressures, and the consequent increase in the school-age population, the annual growth in the total number of students fell from 8.1 per cent in 1970-1980 to 3.9 per cent in 1980-1987. The decline was sharpest at the primary level where the annual growth rate plunged from 7.3 to 2.6 per cent in the same period. The corresponding figures for the secondary level were from 11.9 to 8.5 per cent, and for the university level from 13.1 to 7.7 per cent. There was also a steeper decline in the growth of primary schools, for which the population pressure was greatest, than in secondary and university institutions.

10. Non-formal education and literacy programmes in the 1980s have not grown fast enough to compensate for the shortfalls in the formal educational system. Thus, although literacy ratio rose in the last decade, the number of illiterates continues to grow as parents keep their children out of school due to poverty, while those who enrol but are not able to stay long enough to acquire permanent literacy, add to the pool. Available evidence suggests, e.g., that the incidence of adult literacy is highest in Africa (with a ratio as high as 60 per cent). The percentage of literates was highest in Eastern and Southern Africa, followed by Central Africa and lowest in West Africa. Of course, again the ratio was higher for males than for females, with West Africa and North Africa showing the lowest percentages.

11. The decade of the 1980s witnessed a sharp decline in regional per capita expenditure on education, from $US 41 in 1980 to $US 15 in 1988. The most severe cuts were made in capital expenditures and recurrent expenditures for supplies, furniture, equipment for science laboratories and for repair and maintenance. Rehabilitation of decaying educational institutions became prohibitive for many countries. Moreover, public expenditure for all levels is disproportionately skewed in favour of higher education. However, the surge in unit costs did not seem to be accompanied by a marked improvement in the quality of education. Thus, the contribution which education is expected to make to Africa's recovery and socio-economic development is limited by poor infrastructure, resources and teacher training, and the threat of human wastage through non-attendance of school, particularly at the primary level, and among the poor and vulnerable social groups and increased drop-out rates, especially among girls, who had the highest attrition rates in primary school.

12. In addition, unequal access to education and the educational system have become a source of social and political conflicts. At all levels, children from poorer families are at a significant disadvantage in respect of access to the better quality schools in comparison to children from rich backgrounds, and children in the rural areas, who are faced with similar disadvantages, when compared to those in the urban areas, even with respect to State-financed schools. Country's regional disparities regarding access to educational opportunities are quite remarkable in some countries, particularly when coupled with ethnic and/or religious biases.

III. HEALTH AND NUTRITION

13. The available data on the health situation in Africa in the 1980s indicate critical health threats to the African population. The family is the primary producer of health, particularly the mother. Critical to the mother's ability to produce healthy surviving children is, among other things, her own physical condition. In 12 of 24 countries for which data are available, the maternal mortality rate is well above 500 per 100,000 live births, compared with 44 in China and 90 in Sri Lanka. In 1987, maternal mortality rate was 1,000 in Ghana and over 1,000 in Somalia. Each year about 150,000 mothers in Africa die and the same number suffer permanent disabilities because of complications consequent to pregnancy and childbirth.

14. The conditions of children regarding health also deteriorated significantly during the 1980s. Available data on infant mortality rate (IMR) clearly show that IMR remains much higher than anywhere else in the world. In 1988, for instance, out of 34 countries in the developing world with IMR greater than 100 per 1,000 live births, 22 were in the African region. Thus, although there was some reduction in the IMR between 1960-1988, the IMR in 20 of them in 1988 was very high, ranging between 171 and 116 per 1,000 live births. In 1988, 20 out of the 30 countries in the world with the highest under-5 mortality rate (U5MR) of over 170 per 1,000 live births were found in Africa. Despite the decline in the U5MR between 1960-1988, in 1988, 38 African countries had U5MR of between 107 and 300 per 1,000 live births. The deterioration in the health status of the African population in the 1980s, was further exacerbated by the drastic cuts, unavailable resources and funding experienced by the health sector in many African countries. Health expenditures for example, as percentage of GNP, declined in seven countries, stagnated in one, and increased in seven countries. However, for the region as a whole, the share of health in recurrent government expenditures, which stood at 25.2 per cent in 1986, declined to 23.1 per cent in 1987 and fell further to 19 per cent in 1988.

15. The global spread of AIDS and HIV infection, as a challenge to public health, has complicated the already precarious health status of the African population. As at 31 December 1988, a total of 32,480 cases of AIDS had been reported from 42 African countries, of which 18,635 cases were reported during 1988. These data, however, do not represent a complete picture of the incidence and prevalence of the disease because, for instance, during the whole of 1989, only 5,523 cases were reported.

16. The implications of AIDS, in terms of human suffering, cost to health services and social impact, are enormous. Thus, the AIDS pandemic is a major health challenge to Africa in the 1990s, and has the potential to affect many areas of social policy. AIDS also poses a threat to the impact of HIV and AIDS in young people and infants and might cause a decline in national life expectancies in many countries and raise IMR; thus, some gains in reducing fertility might be reversed. In terms of social and economic cost, when large numbers of productive members of society are affected - approximately 75 to 90 per cent of cases are among young people aged between 20 to 40 years - AIDS deprives society of its economic and social contributions. The family structure and function are threatened both by infection and by loss of mothers and fathers. Their illness and death mean loss of productivity, human capital and support for the children and the elderly. Moreover, their care depletes already scarce resources of both families and health-care structures. However, while international medical and health efforts are central to the struggle against this epidemic, until research yields results, prevention remains at present the only effective weapon. Education programmes and public information are indispensable and remain the only instruments at this stage to combat HIV and AIDS epidemic.

17. The food crisis in Africa, together with the droughts and famines of the 1980s, had a tremendous impact on the status of nutrition in the region. The nutritional status of any country is the function of both food availability and food accessibility. Thus, the nutritional insecurity in Africa is not simply a question of food scarcity in aggregate terms. Daily calorie supply per capita declined in 10 of the 16 countries on which information are complete between 1980-1986. Moreover, the proportion of household income spent on all food and cereals declined considerably between 1980-1985 in 14 countries for which data are available. Dietary deficiencies have tended to be particularly serious among children and among the rural population.

IV. EMPLOYMENT, INCOME AND POVERTY

A. Employment

18. All the literature on employment in the African region has reported a tremendous deterioration in the employment situation during the 1980s. The sharply deteriorating trend in productive employment is demonstrated by the falling refined activity rates for all the subregions from 1981-1987. Available data show that, despite a slight increase in total employment in the 1970s, it stagnated in the 1980s and the overall employment situation worsened by some 16, per cent between 1980 AND 1987. Despite the central position of agriculture in the African economies and societies (it occupies about two-thirds of the labour force and 80 per cent of the working women), the employment situation in agriculture witnessed a serious decline during the second half of the 1980s. There is a heavy concentration of the active population in agriculture except for North Africa which exhibits a higher degree of sectoral differentiation. However, the decline observed in agricultural employment opportunities should be linked with suspected high rates of underemployment, especially in subsistence agriculture where productivity is low. All these have made the rural areas the fountainhead of Africa's employment problem.

19. Given the fact that agriculture constitutes the largest sector of the economies of the least developed countries (LDCs), both in terms of number employed in the sector and its absolute share in GDP, the performance of the agriculture sector in the African LDCs, regarding labour absorption, is even more distressing. For the 28 African LDCs, as a group, the growth rate of agricultural GDP declined from 0.87 per cent in the 1970s to a mere 0.42 per cent during 1980-1987. The productivity of agriculture and the expansion of employment opportunities in rural areas are found to become increasingly constrained by population pressure, degradation of the eco-system, the limited spread of technology, institutional constraints and misguided government policies.

20. Available information indicated that only a small fraction of the new workers who enter the labour market each year will be able to find employment in the modern sector, even under the most optimistic scenarios. Modern sector wage employment represented 10 per cent of the regional labour force in 1985. Moreover, wage employment growth in the modern sector has decreased considerably in a number of African countries since 1980. Thus, in 13 countries for which data are available, the average rate of increase slowed down from 2.8 per cent per annum in the period 1975-1980 to 1.1 per cent between 1980 and 1985. Five countries have even shown a decline in wage employment (Swaziland, Zambia, Côte d'Ivoire, the Gambia and the Niger) and only two (Botswana and Zimbabwe) have shown a negligible increase between 1980-1985; moreover, nine countries registered an outright decrease in the industrial wage employment opportunities. Thus, a deceleration in modern sector wage employment has been reported in the majority of the African countries.

21. The retrenchment of workers and civil service employees added to the already precarious situation by rendering millions of people unemployed in the period 1985-1987. Industry has not been reoriented to labour-intensive strategies to absorb more of the rapidly expanding work force. Thus, employment growth in the industrial sector decelerated from 2.4 per cent in 1975-1980 to a mere 0.1 per cent in 1980-1985. The failure of the manufacturing industry to absorb the growing urban labour force is more pronounced in the African LDCs. Data collected from a sample of eight LDCs indicate that employment growth has been seriously lagging behind growth in industrial output expansion except in Botswana. The rate of labour absorption in the manufacturing sector fell behind the urban population growth rate in Benin, Burkina Faso, the Gambia, Somalia, the United Republic of Tanzania and Malawi. In addition, the growth in manufacturing value added exceeded the growth rate of total population in Botswana, Burkina Faso and Ethiopia. In five countries (Benin, the Gambia, the United Republic of Tanzania, Malawi and Somalia), population growth outstripped the growth rate of manufacturing output. Industrial output expansion and employment creation have not been commensurate with the preponderance of resources allocated to it.

22. The employment situation in both the modern wage employment and agriculture have created undeniable unemployment problems in the region, especially in urban areas. The available information about urban unemployment in the region by the end of the 1980s suggests that its rate ranged between 15-20 per cent, up from approximately 10 per cent in the mid-1970s. This means that, in absolute terms, there are approximately 9 million urban unemployed in sub-Saharan Africa. This number is growing at the exceedingly high tempo. It is currently estimated that the unemployed population is growing at 10 per cent or more a year, compared to an estimate of 6 per cent a year for the 1960s. The social profile of the unemployed reveals two important characteristics, namely their youthfulness and their high level of education.

23. Stagnant, and the very slowly rising modern sector employment, together with the social nature of the unemployed, have left small and micro-enterprises, now mainly in the informal sector, to absorb about half of the new entrants to the labour force. An estimated 61 per cent of the urban labour force are currently employed in the informal sector.

B. Incomes

24. The observed decline in economic activity in the 1980s was reflected in the steady declines in per capita income experienced by African countries as a whole. Per capita income declined at annual average rate of 3.4 per cent in the period 1980-1986. The drastic decline in aggregate African income levels in the mid-1980s has worsened the situation of income disparities between the various socio-economic groups. One estimate shows that, on average, the ratio of urban to rural incomes is 4:1, and the gap is continuously widening. However, it is important to note that geographic income groups are not homogenous. In other words, rural areas may comprise some rich large commercial farmers, white urban areas are populated by poor, unskilled marginal workers with very low incomes. Given the drastic decline in per capita income which has dramatically increased income competition among socio-economic groups, income disparities in the region can now be considered among the highest in the world. The available albeit fragmented information on the distribution of income in seven African countries indicates that in some of them, the top 20 per cent of the socio-economic groups appropriated between 55 and 61 per cent of the total income while the bottom 40 per cent earned between 9 and 12 per cent in the mid-1980s.

25. A consideration relevant to the structure of income distribution is the sharp fall observed in real wages and its impact on low income earners. This is particularly important when the African labour force depends on wage employment as a major source of cash income. A World Bank study on sub-Saharan African countries shows that only one country reported a modest increase in real wages. All the other countries registered considerable declines. Real wages declined more rapidly than per capita income and had an average fall of 30 per cent between 1980-1986. The declines were particularly severe in LDCs undertaking conventional SAPs (e.g., the Sudan, Somalia, the United Republic of Tanzania, the Gambia). This has caused a dramatic loss in the purchasing power of the wage workers earnings and its impact was greatest on the lowest paid who could barely meet their food needs.

C. The incidence of poverty

26. In view of rising unemployment, decline in per capita incomes and real wages, the incidence and prevalence of poverty have increased in Africa. Notwithstanding the conceptual controversy over poverty, the poor being defined as those who live below the poverty line, i.e., that level of income below which an individual or household cannot afford, on regular basis, the necessities of life. Although there was an observed drop in the proportion of Africans living below the poverty line in urban areas from 32 to 29 per cent between 1975 and 1985, the number of people living in poverty increased substantially from 26 to 47 million during this period, because the urban population itself grew rapidly. On the other hand, there was a rapid growth of rural poverty during the same period from 50 to 58 per cent. Recent data on the proportion of the population below the poverty line in 23 African countries reveal even more starkly the incidence of rural poverty. Thus, in more than half of these countries (12), the proportion of rural population below the poverty line ranges between 6 and 91 per cent. It is important to note that the rural poor are a heterogeneous group comprising the landless, nomads and pastoralists, and fishermen, but they share common disabilities. These include limited assets, environmentally vulnerable, lack of access to public services and amenities, especially education and medical care.

V. VULNERABLE SOCIAL GROUPS IN THE SOCIETY

27. The above cursory review of the social development record in Africa during the 1960s, distressing as it is, indicates that in addition, the distribution of the slender resources among the various socio-economic groupings is transparently unequal. This has disastrous effects on the social development scene in Africa. Thus, the socio-economic and political process in the region has relegated certain groups to vulnerable situations, poverty and perennial social deprivations. And yet, many African Governments have, in different fora, stated their recognition that sustained development and long-term structural transformation in the continent would be impossible without the full integration of these groups into all development efforts. As is usually the case, there has been a continuous discrepancy between stated policies and actual practice. The following section examines, albeit briefly, the implications of marginalizing a large segment of the population - here defined as vulnerable groups - from the mainstream of development strategies.

A. Women and social development

28. Women in general are subjected to two major constraints which greatly affected their general social status in the society: (a) cultural and ideological biases reinforced by traditional institutions and social customs and (b) formal and legal barriers which stand in the way of women's

emancipation. These two constraints prevent women from becoming fully active participants in the cultural, social, economic and political life of their respective countries. Studies in social development must take into account the plight of women belonging to different socio-cultural groups and classes in each country.

29. Equal access to education for women is a crucial factor for the achievement of their full participation in the process of development. However, although the proportion of girls, aged 6 to 11 years enrolled in schools in the 1980s increased to 57 per cent, the number of girls not enrolled in school remains significantly greater than the number of boys. ILO data show that there is a wide variation in gross enrolment ratios from Lesotho, Zimbabwe and Kenya with ratios of 127, 126 and 93 respectively, to Mali, Guinea, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia and Chad, with ratios 17, 18, 24, 28 and 29, respectively, in 1986-1988. However, female enrolment ratios are generally lower than those of males even in countries with high total gross enrolment ratios.

30. The gender gap in education comes at a high social and economic cost to any country. Evidence shows that the mother's education is perhaps the single most important determinant of a family's health and nutrition, and that education enhances agricultural productivity. Thus, since most agricultural subsistence producers are women, basic education can be expected to improve their income opportunities and decision-making powers within the household. Furthermore, even a few years of learning at the primary school has been shown to lower women's fertility either directly by increasing awareness of contraception, or indirectly, by reducing the demand for children, because women perceive enhanced earnings as important, or by raising the age of marriage and thereby reducing the number of child-bearing years.

31. The poor and unsatisfactory health status of the African population in the 1980s has already been pointed out. Women are subjected to more health problems than men, they have less access to curative and preventive health services. Health services, especially in the rural areas of Africa, are weak for both men and women, but women's general lack of mobility, as opposed to men, further limits their ability to travel to service points (for immunization, for example). Thus, pressures on women's time have an adverse effect on the efficiency of health care. In Africa, for instance, more girls than boys die between the ages of one and four years, a stark contrast with the industrial countries where deaths of boys are more than 20 per cent higher than those of girls. This is indicative of the socio-cultural patterns that discriminate against women. This discrimination takes different forms. We have already, for instance, pointed to the high maternal mortality rate, which again indicates that women may not get the same health care and nutrition as men.

32. Increasing participation of women has been recognized by all African States, despite the underestimation of women's economic contribution in the household, and in the subsistence economy as unpaid family workers. Labour force participation rates are higher for males than for females, except for the age bracket 15-19 because of higher male enrolment in secondary school. The gender bias differs according to the location. In rural areas, the activity rate is higher for females, while the opposite is true in urban areas. However, female wage employment seems to have increased steadily over the past few years. Information based on a sample of nine countries shows that the proportion of women in total wage employment has gone up from 15.8 per cenmt in 1975 to 17.9 and 19.1 per cent in 1980 and 1985 respectively. However, it should be noted that the relative increase (1.2 per cent) was smaller in 1980-1985 than that in 1975-1980 (2.1 per cent). This suggests that women's access to wage employment - although improving over time - was threatened by the economic crisis of the 1980s.

33. Despite these changes, more than two-thirds of African women are still employed in agriculture. However, women carry the considerable disadvantage, faced by the rural population, as well as overburdened with a considerable workload. Women act as mothers, cultivators, food providers, and in animal breeding, water fetching, etc. In many cases, women are landless. Because of frequent excessive workloads, women lack opportunity to fully participate in social gatherings that are dominated by male heads of household. As a consequence, women are exposed to unfair exploitation which reflects long hours of work, with extremely low level of income. The lower pay of women compared to men is also related to the concentration of women in low-paying labour-intensive industries. Moreover, women seldom occupy jobs at the management or decision-making levels or in skilled manual work, which is an important reason why, on average, they earn less than men. These prohibitive conditions have placed women, economically and socially, dependent on the male heads of households.

B. Refugees and displaced persons

34. The number of people fleeing persecution (for reasons of race, religion, ethnic origin or political belief), internal conflicts, civil wars, natural disasters and the collapse of the rural economy in different parts of Africa significantly increased in the 1980s. In 1989, 6 million of the estimated 14 million refugees were in Africa, and the Horn of Africa accounted for at least 2 million of them. The refugee problem has become one of the major forces countering the social and economic development of Africa, particularly in the rural areas. Thus, besides the human hardship this problem imposes upon those involved (the refugees and home countries) severe problems of depopulation, reduced productive capacity, and threatened food shortages that may encourage further population migration. Furthermore, the burden on host countries to provide food, shelter, clothing, health care, education and gainful employment is typically beyond individual country's capability.

35. The problems faced by refugees in their new and often hostile environment frequently cannot be ignored particularly those pertaining to the status of social development among them daunting with definite implications for social development in general. The refugee population is usually young and includes a high proportion of school-age children. In Somalia, for instance, children under five years constituted 60 per cent of the refugee population in 1987. However, the proportion of those enrolled in school is indeed very small. In the Sudan, for example, only 28.9 per cent of the Ethiopian refugees in the Eastern region went to school in 1988. Despite the establishment of primary schools in refugee camps, in most host countries the shortage of teaching materials, trained teachers, and overcrowdness of schools have led to high rates of dropouts. The refugees are exposed to serious health hazards especially upon their arrival when dehydration, malnutrition, swollen legs and feet are visible signs in the refugee reception centres. A mission of the OAU Commission of Fifteen on Refugees in five African countries observed the prevalence of anemia and scurvy in many refugee camps, with anemia particularly affecting pregnant/lactating women and small children. Diarrhoea was also cited as being responsible for many deaths in refugee camps and there was also a high incidence of relapsing fever and malnutrition within the settlements. Pneumonia also posed a serious health hazard. Shortages of drugs was cited by the national staff in the respective refugee camps as a serious problem which limits disease-control programmes. Malnutrition cases were attributed to inadequate food supply, both in terms of quantity and quality.

36. African refugees ironically cross the borders into poor countries already beset by rising rates of unemployment among their nationals. Thus, the prospects of refugee absorption in gainful

employment are usually precarious. One serious problem faced by refugees, especially in rural areas of the host countries, is the necessary adaptation to new employment patterns. Ethiopian refugees in rural Sudan, for instance, revealed that the overwhelming majority (78.5 per cent) used to practice farming and animal husbandry in their respective home areas. However, the present forms of refugee employment have radically changed the previous employment patterns, where they are now dependent on wage labour either in mechanized agricultural schemes or in nearby towns. The unemployment rate among them is as high as 41.2 per cent. Moreover, restrictions on the refugee movement continue to be a major constraint in their access to alternative employment opportunities.

37. Internal wars, famines, droughts and environmental disasters triggered a mass displacement of population and large-scale migratory movements within African States during the 1980s. The numbers of displaced persons are more difficult to estimate, since they stay within their national boundaries but there may be as many as 10 million in the region whose plight is still unresolved.

C. Youth

38. The youth population is the largest in Africa, representing 11 per cent of the world youth population in 1984. Moreover, they represent between 19 and 25 per cent of the total population in many countries. Although the majority of young people live in rural areas, their rate of migration to large urban centres is growing steadily. The main source of alarm is not the size of the youth population, but the fact that they represent an inadequately tapped reservoir of human resources. Although young people have traditionally encountered problems in the areas of education and training, family life, health and housing, unemployment, according to the United Nations Secretary-General "is the most critical socio-economic problem relating to youth". Youth are bearing a disproportionate share of the employment problem. Thus, typically the youth population accounts for between 60 and 75 per cent of the unemployed population in the region. Information obtained on 15 sub-Saharan African countries reveal that youth unemployment rate is, on average, higher than the adult unemployment rate. Moreover, the majority of those employed are holding jobs which offer little in the way of satisfying and rewarding experience.

39. Another important characteristic of the unemployed youth is their high level of education. Available data suggest that educated youth in Africa are becoming more prone to unemployment than the uneducated work force. Though data on employment, by age and educational attainment, is lacking, the available information support the proposition that educated youth are not immune to unemployment, and that they often bear a disproportionate burden of the youth unemployment problem. Evidence also shows that the unemployment rate among those who completed secondary education is higher than those who had completed the primary school.

VI. THE IMPACT OF THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CRISIS ON THE FAMILY

40. The structure of the African family has remained relatively stable. However, there is an observed trend towards breakdown in the traditional structure and support function of the family, particularly in urban centres, and in rural areas mostly affected by the continuing economic crisis, war, drought and the attendant processes of displacement and migration. In many parts of Africa, prolonged and recurrent devastation of nature, exacerbated by war and serious economic decline, have led to the disintegration of families. As families are important producers of food in Africa, the breakdown of the family threatens the survival of individuals and the economic viability of the

communities in rural areas. The cutbacks in social services, due to severe fiscal pressures, have reduced financial security for the population at the very time when it is most needed. The social functions of the family have also been found to break down under these extreme pressures. Under normal conditions, the extended family, and other kin-based groups, would have provided assistance and a buffer against such economic set-backs. However, such traditional arrangements are no longer as viable when these families are fleeing droughts, wars and starvation, and as their own resources have become so limited. Thus, children were abandoned by parents who could no longer support them. The migration of whole families and households in search of relief from starvation, in areas of extreme deprivation, has uprooted families and communities and disrupted the existing system of production and services for members of these social groups.

41. Structural adjustment programmes have had a negative social impact on the status of the African family and have created a dilemma and a vicious circle. Where some measure of economic growth has been achieved, countries have become more indebted and dependent on external financial resources and less capable of delivering to the people the social benefits assumed to be derived from growth. Thus, there has been a distinct shift of the financial burden of important basic needs from the public to the private domain and to families, whether they could afford it or not. Structural adjustment programmes have their greatest adverse effect on the African family's security and well-being, due to elimination of subsidies, the wage freeze and decline and the subsequent decline in migrants' remittances from urban to rural areas.

PART TWO

VII. PERSPECTIVES FOR THE 1990s

42. The discussion of prospects for social development in the 1990s is highlighted and measured against the background of the persistent African crisis and the unsatisfactory performance of African States regarding the implementation of recovery and development programmes. Thus, social issues and concerns emanating from the experience of the 1980s are shown to be the major challenges to social policy and the status of social development in the 1990s.

43. Unregulated population growth, which will reach its peak in the mid-1990s, is not commensurate with the pattern of utilization of resources and will continue, in the 1990s, to strain the capacity of social services throughout the African continent. It will impose a burden, with disastrous effects, on individual households, state savings, and will weaken national efforts to improve the quality of life and exacerbate the problem of declining per capita incomes and health expenditures. Despite projected decline in both population annual growth rate and total fertility rate between 1990-2020, the African population will exceed 1 billion by 2020. Considering the inadequacy of family planning programmes in most African countries, it is unlikely that fertility reduction, assumed in standard projections, will occur. The observed uneven age distribution of the African population will persist during the 1990s and will have serious implications for social development. Among other things, the burden it places on working people is not only great but limits their capacity to make productive investments.

44. Movements of migrants and displaced populations to large urban centres is expected to grow in the 1990s and will lead to deepening of the urban crisis. The failure to produce and manage urban infrastructures, services and shelter will result in mushrooming shanty settlements, with primitive facilities and rampant disease linked to unhealthy environment.

45. Given the enrolment trends of the 1980s and owing to rapid population growth, universal primary education, in the majority of the African countries, will not be attained by the turn of the century. However, the challenge of the 1990s in this respect will not simply be the stagnation of enrolment but also the low and declining quality of education. The problem would further be aggravated if the present share of education in public expenditures were maintained during the 1990s. This is closely related to the disproportionate and skewed public expenditures in favour of higher education. The question of equality in access to education at all levels will come to the fore of the educational issues in the 1990s. Children from poorer socio-economic backgrounds and marginalized regions are at a significant disadvantage, being admitted to low standard schools manned by inadequately prepared and poorly remunerated teachers. Thus, the question of subsidizing rich and urban children at the expense of poor and rural children will be articulated in the ensuing socio-political conflict over educational opportunities. The skewed distribution of these opportunities might be a cause of flaring demands of the respective countries vis-à-vis power sharing and economic advantage.

46. One vital challenge for the state of educational development in the 1990s will be the growing number of illiterates. One important issue in this regard is the entry of children into the pool of illiterates due mainly to non-enrolment in primary school and non-completion. The democratization of pre-university education, the intensification of adult literacy programmes and the recognition by African States of their responsibilities for the basic education of their citizens constitute the objective criteria for measuring the status of educational development in the 1990s.

47. The unequal distribution of new investments in health care, nationwide, and the exclusion of most of the population from access to the meagre services will be one of the worries of the 1990s. The assessment of priorities and the broadening of the coverage of the services are real challenges for the health sector during this decade. This goes hand-in-hand with rationalizing drug procurement, dispensing, and the use of labour in the health sector for raising efficiency while reducing costs.

48. The health threats to women's and children's lives will bring the question of primary health care (PHC) to the fore in the 1990s. The austerity measures dictated by orthodox SAPs have constrained public expenditure on drugs and medical supplies. Thus, securing budget allocation for the provision of PHC will be essential if health services are to achieve their potential contributions to improved health, productivity and development. This calls for a change in expenditures on hospital services and curative medicine to become proportionate to - or better, in favour of - that on primary health care.

49. The status of health would not be improved in the 1990s, if the 1980s standards of access to safe water, sanitation and personal hygiene were maintained. Time and effort spent on fetching and carrying water, especially by women who are the most nutritionally vulnerable, could be spent on child care, crop cultivation, food preparation, education or other activities that could improve health.

50. The looming threat of famines and food shortages has already been felt by some countries at the beginning of this decade. Even if domestic food production grew as projected, food imports would double by the end of the 1990s. Although aggregate growth in production may ensure long-run food security for the region as a whole, it may not be achieved for each country, a fact which calls for food trade within Africa. However, even if food supply improves, the distribution of income and wealth and regional concentration of production may leave large segments of society

without the purchasing power to buy enough staple food. This requires improvement in income and employment during the 1990s.

51. The unemployment problem will figure prominently during the 1990s. More than twice the current level of employment should be achieved by 2020, even if the rate of unemployment was reduced by 10 per cent and the population growth rate was slowed down to 2.75 per cent in the period 1990-2020. Thus, the creation of jobs for the rapidly expanding labour force must be a central objective.

52. The agriculture sector will continue to be a major source of new employment during this decade. However, despite the availability of potential labour-intensive activities in agriculture, such as horticulture, dairying and forestry, there are limits to the sector's capacity for labour absorption.

53. The projected annual growth of wage employment in the modern sector is very low. If reductions in public sector employment were to continue during the 1990s, based on the assumption of the sector's chronic overstaffing, unemployment will be seriously exacerbated. The choice between the economic efficiency criteria and the political economy criteria of social efficiency will, to a large extent, determine the contraction or expansion in public sector employment in the 1990s.

54. The informal sector, with its myriad of activities and services, will continue to be an important source of labour absorption in the 1990s. However, in view of the increasing number of entrants, rising competition and the lack of capital and experience on the part of newcomers, the limited capacity of the informal sector must seriously be considered.

55. Growing unemployment among youth and graduates will be a primary cause of social and political upheavals during the 1990s. The high ratio of dependency and declining incomes and real wages will prompt frustrations, amplify feelings of resentment, nurture rebellious attitudes among the unemployed population and lead to social violence and political unrest.

56. The questions of poverty alleviation and better income distribution are central to the status of social development in the 1990s. The economic crisis of the 1980s diverted attention from basic needs programmes and, therefore, the strategies of the 1990s must address two critical needs: first, how to make the poor more productive, and second, how to provide resources and productive assets to the poor, especially women. Rapid population growth during the 1990s implies that even the optimistic targets proposed for agricultural and industrial growth would leave room for only limited improvements in per capita incomes. Moreover, the increased level of domestic savings required would mean that per capita consumption would remain stagnant.

57. Given the 1980s trends in economic and social development, the vulnerability of the marginalized groups is unlikely to substantially improve in the 1990s. The potential, knowledge, skills and experiences of these groups could, in various ways, be used to enhance the process of social development during this decade. Women, for instance, are responsible for between 60 and 80 per cent of food production. Thus, any approach to the food crisis can hardly be realistic without addressing the question of women, particularly in rural areas, as a priority in the agenda for action in the 1990s. This could be realized by encouraging popular participation among women, the provision of resources and the removal of formal and legal barriers which have constrained women's effective participation in social and political life.

58. In view of the political and social turmoils in Africa and the unabated environmental degradation, the number of refugees and displaced persons will increase during the 1990s. African Governments' observance of the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights and their commitment to and the implementation of the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation must be brought into public focus as the only viable means for the realization of a permanent resolution to these two chronic problems.

59. Given the character of the African population age structure, on the one hand, and State policies regarding wage employment, on the other, youth will remain the primary bearers of the brunt of unemployment in 1990s which means further retardation to the process of social development. Two issues are critical to the perspective situation of African youth regarding governments' awareness of the problem: first, the creation and stimulation of youth involvement in self-employment opportunities; and second, the necessity of involving youth in the design and implementation of such programmes through enhancement of popular participation.

VIII. POLICY CO-ORDINATION IN THE SOCIAL SECTOR

60. Policy co-ordination in the social sector is a prerequisite for any improvement sought in the status of social development for two reasons: (a) all social development issues reviewed in this study are interdependent and mutually reinforce each other; (b) better co-ordination of strategies and programmes would ensure a more judicious use of available resources, whether these are provided from outside or within Africa.

61. At one level, policy co-ordination is required between the various institutions of the social sector itself. Hence, a priority area for co-ordination is the focal point where the status of women, being the primary food producers, children, health and nutrition and education, interact. Family planning is, for instance, more accepted when overall mortality is relatively low and levels of education relatively high. Family planning improves maternal and child health by following the spacing of births. Similarly, clean water and sanitation produce more benefits when provided along with health education which improves hygiene and nutrition education which results in better dietary habits. Providing clean water reduces infection in children and boosts nutritional status. Healthier children are more likely to attend school and to learn than the sick and malnourished. Education, in turn, enables people to understand health problems and to act in their prevention and cure. Thus. social policy co-ordination is required between the institutions of the health and education sectors to produce educated and healthy parents who are most likely to have educated and healthy children.

62. At another level, effective social policy also calls for co-ordination between social sector institutions, on the one hand, and other national institutions at central and regional levels in each country, on the other. Policy co-ordination is essential with both central planning and economic institutions. Social sector institutions must be effectively incorporated in the central planning process to ensure a judicious balance between economic and social needs. Policies on the provision of basic needs, such as food, health, primary education and literacy should be closely co-ordinated with those pertaining to employment and income distribution, on the one hand, and the population policy regarding population structure and distribution, on the other. In other words, social development policies must be developed and maintained in complementary and mutually supportive relationship with economic policies.

63. Again, there must be constant communication and co-ordination between social sector institutions and planning economic agencies at the level of formulation and implementation of action programmes. Social policy considerations must constitute a primary component of all programmes which, for instance, address the urban-rural inequalities in national development plans. Also, social institutions must be aware of the social implications of all the proposals of economic development projects and to articulate social measures necessary to prevent, or minimize, the adverse effects of such projects.

64. The proliferation and momentum of non-governmental organizations (NGOs), both local and foreign, have been an important force in the social landscape in Africa. Social policy must therefore give due consideration to increased NGO involvement in the various areas of social development and to co-ordinate policy issues accordingly. Lack of co-ordination and the often-expressed suspicious attitudes of African Governments towards NGOs have resulted in duplication of activities, waste of financial resources and therefore retrogression in the process of social development. The prominent place which NGOs have found in international instruments and plans of action must be manifested at national levels. Areas of co-ordination between social sector institutions and NGOs should be identified for both the formulation and the implementation of sound social policies. Thus, NGOs must have access to information on social development issues and be consulted and involved in decision-making that affects their activities.

IX. MODALITIES FOR POLICY IMPLEMENTATION BY SOCIAL SECTOR INSTITUTIONS

65. The effective implementation of co-ordinated social policy on the part of social sector institutions calls for the initiation and pursuance of two levels of intervention. One, at macro-national level which involves the creation of institutional structures to cater for multisectoral projects in each country. The primary objective of these structures is to enhance the pursuit of democratic social development in the medium and long run. The objective of the second intervention, at a micro-sectoral level, is to redress the present situation of the most precarious social development subsectors and to ensure that areas and segments of society, previously ignored, were covered.

66. The implementation of such a strategy, beyond the national level, would require the strengthening of regional and subregional co-operation in the human development sector. The particular instrument for such co-ordination could be regional/subregional inter-agency programme development and co-ordination committees set up under the joint auspices of the OAU and ECA for integrated initiatives for the various social concerns. A number of areas can be identified for such programmes including health, literacy and adult education, child development, youth and community participation and employment. Moreover, the already existing high-level policy-making or advisory organs should be strengthened and revitalized to play a more active role in designing practical guidelines for policy implementation.

67. For effective implementation of social development policies, a deviation from the accepted vertical and compartmentalized system of addressing social issues is imperative. Thus, the realization of social policy objectives must draw upon effective community participation at the local, district and national levels. In other words, it must be based on a genuine and direct partnership between the government's social institutions and the people, through their various political and social organizations, including indigenous NGOs, at national, local and grass-root levels. NGOs have, in many instances, provided an efficient and effective alternative to public

agencies in the delivery of social programmes and projects. This implies that African Governments should sponsor the creation of an enabling environment, through democratizing and decentralizing the decision-making process, broaden their power base and vigorously support grass-roots initiatives.

68. Co-ordination between social sector institutions must be expressed in the implementation of interrelated policies and programmes through joint activities and ventures, inter-sectoral seminars, workshops and meetings. Inter-sectoral monitoring and evaluation mechanisms should also be established to ensure prompt adjustment in policies and programmes where necessary, and expansion or replication of successful experiences.

PART THREE

X. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY ACTION

69. Under the section on perspectives, some policy issues for the 1990s were highlighted. In addition, the recognition of the continent's economic and social crisis by the African States and the emerging consensus regarding their diagnosis and the prescribed solutions, leave little room for original recommendations for policy action. Thus, the vigorous pursuance and implementation of these comprehensive strategies and plans of action will result in considerable improvement in the status of social development in the 1990s. These include, the Lagos Plan of Action (1980), Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) (1985), the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development (UN-PAAERD) (1986), the Regional Plan of Action on Youth (1983), the Arusha Strategies for the Advancement of Women in Africa (1984), the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women (1985), the Charter of the Health Development of the African Region (1979), the OAU Declaration Abuja Statement (1987), the Khartoum Declaration: Towards a Human-focused Approach to Socio-economic Recovery and Development in Africa (1988), and the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation (1990).

70. Thus, governments should be persuaded to display positive commitments to the articulation of the social and human dimension as an integral part of development planning and policy formulation. Thus, the plans and policies must incorporate the ethos of social development and cater for the vulnerable groups in society by promoting equity, social justice and peoples participation.

71. Research on the different aspects of social development must be encouraged by social sector institutions, by strengthening the capabilities of social research institutions and census offices as prerequisites for systematic data collection, survey and analysis of major social issues and for policy monitoring, evaluation and review.

72. Adequate budgetary allocations should be made to the social sectors regarding these as investments with multiplier effects on human development. Reforms in the educational system must emphasize the link between education on the one hand, and the socio-economic environment and production, on the other, and should introduce subjects relevant to this relationship, such as food, health, environment, drought, desertification, forestry and livestock management, etc. National efforts and regional co-operation must be co-ordinated to attain (a) universal primary education in the economically poor countries and to work out basic education programmes which do not require

satisfactory level of quality and relevance in primary education. Experiences involving the participation of families, local communities and NGOs in increasing the relevance and improving the quality of education could profitably be shared among countries. The education sector should design programmes to meet the basic learning needs of disadvantaged groups, out-of-school youth and adults with little or no access to basic learning opportunities. All partners can share their experience in designing and implementing innovative measures and activities and focus their funding on basic education on specific categories and groups (e.g., women, the rural poor, the disabled) to improve significantly the learning opportunities and conditions available for them. Health policy reforms should start with assessment of priorities regarding the orientation of the public health system and the need to broaden the coverage of services to reach the majority of the population who live in remote rural areas. The expansion in primary health care which calls for the effective participation of the community is the only alternative to expensive curative health care. The health sector institutions must closely co-ordinate with the NGOs working in the field of primary health care. Communities must also be consulted and encouraged to participate in setting their own priorities and in the design and delivery of health care programmes.

73. The health sector should embark on massive campaigns to inform the public, particularly women, of the importance of balanced diets, the value of breast-feeding and young children's needs at weaning and beyond. Besides better information, other supports will be needed such as energy-dense food for children to make extra meals unnecessary and time-saving devices for women. The health sector should also launch direct feeding programmes for malnourished children. One of the major priorities of the 1990s has to be the transformation of the African agriculture sector to improve food security and usher in fundamental development process.

74. Given the squeeze in modern sector wage-employment and the limited prospects for large-scale labour-intensive industries, governments must stimulate employment in medium-scale firms by encouraging investment in simple manufacturing such as furniture, clothing and household goods.

75. Governments must also tap the employment potential of agriculture, especially in labour-intensive activities such as horticulture, dairying and forestry. Equally, efforts must be expended to stimulate urban informal employment opportunities by creating a conducive environment for the proliferation of self-employment and income-generating prospects.

76. Wage legislation must be adjusted to be commensurate with rising inflation and prices of basic consumption goods on the one hand, and the decline in real wages and incomes on the other. This should simultaneously take place with the formulation of systematic retirement policies that would guarantee after-service social security.

77. To mitigate the increasing burden of unemployment and the retrenchment of workers on the ailing family-based social security arrangements, policy action is needed to assist the unemployed and retrenched workers through (a) creating machineries to promote the advancement of women and youth, (b) job training and placement of retrenched workers, (c) initiation of labour-intensive public works programmes, credit, and income-generating schemes for women and small farmers in the most disadvantaged areas, and (d) the formulation of apprenticeship programmes for training and support services for self-employment.

78. Education programmes for women and girls should be designed to eliminate the social and cultural barriers which have discouraged, or even excluded, women and girls from the benefits of regular education programmes as well as to promote equal opportunities in all aspects of their lives.

79. The plight of the refugees and displaced persons could only be permanently resolved if African Governments pursued policies that would ensure (a) equal development of the different regions of each country, (b) equitable distribution of national wealth, (c) equal share in the political power of the various socio-economic and ethnic groups in the society.

80. Since problems of refugees cannot be confined to national boundaries, a subregional and regional approach should be adopted towards confronting them. Host countries and refugee-sending countries must co-operate in undertaking development-oriented projects to make refugees productive and useful to their host countries, as well as to their home countries, upon their repatriation.

81. Youth should be considered as one of the most important target groups of an employment-oriented and equitable development strategy. Thus, social policy action must focus on growing youth unemployment. Special efforts must be made to integrate the youth, often raised in poverty, into the economic life by breaking the cycle of dependence and providing training opportunities. Much attention should be given to youth training, enlisting the assistance of both official and voluntary organizations. Moreover, training programmes should be designed in such a way as to promote youth participatory activities.

82. In view of the growing strain on poor families and the adoption of various survival strategies in response to economic pressures, policy support should unreservedly be extended to those survival strategies emphasizing the growth of employment and productivity of small-scale informal sector manufacturing; support to communities for self-production and exchange of food, shelter, and community-based services; and increasing communal efforts in basic needs.

XI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

83. The first part of this study reviewed the status of social development in Africa in the 1980s, by highlighting the main features of this development, within the context of a persistent and pervasive socio-economic crisis witnessed by the continent, especially during the past decade. Thus, while the continent did in fact have to contend with formidable problems, it also registered respected, though erratic, growth rates in output as well as advances in education, health and other social sectors. However, this development was short-lived and was soon stunted. Due to a number of factors, the economic scene began to display disturbing signs so that by the end of the 1980s it had already become customary to talk of a crisis. By the mid-1980s, internal natural and man-made disasters, coupled with the world economic recession, interplayed to shutter the expectations and frustrate the hopes of the immediate post-independence period.

84. African Governments responded to the crisis by resorting to stringent financial measures under the IMF/World Bank-sponsored SAPs: these have been traumatic for the process of social development in Africa. Thus, the 1980s saw a steady deterioration in the social conditions of most African populations and witnessed a reversal in the trends of social advancement that had been achieved during the first one and a half decades of independence.

85. Recognizing the magnitude of the African crisis, African Governments, regional organizations and the United Nations specialized organs have made commendable efforts to find

concrete solutions. Thus, comprehensive strategies and plans of action on especial issues, have been formulated since 1980. Though, the areas identified by these documents for priority action reflected an awareness of the social dimension of the crisis, there is overriding pre-occupation with economic issues at the expense of social concerns which had to await the Khartoum Declaration: Towards a Human-focused Approach to Socio-economic Recovery and Development in Africa, to underline the centrality of the human dimension in the recovery and development process. Again, the African Alternative to Structural Adjustment Programmes (AAF-SAP) was formulated in 1989 to redress the conventional programmes adverse consequences on the continent's process of social development.

86. The study, in its second part, has noted that any considerable improvements sought in the status of social development during the 1990s are contingent on African Governments implementation of the various strategies and plans of action to which they had already committed themselves. However, a clearer articulation of the concept of social development and its elevation to a central place in these strategies and plans of action is imperative.

87. To this effect, the study has firmly stressed the necessity for policy co-ordination between the various social sector institutions at national, regional and subregional levels, for a more effective implementation of social policies. The study has also called for the need for co-ordination between the social sector institutions, on the one hard, and the national planning and economic agencies, on the other.

88. The study, in its third part, has acknowledged that the recommendations contained in the African strategies for recovery and plans of action leave little room for originality in this regard. However, a number of recommendations for policy and practical action on the different aspects of social development were highlighted.

I. INTRODUCTION

1. In November 1989, the Economic Commission for Africa through its unit, the African Training and Research Centre for Women (ECA/ATRCW) convened the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development on the Implementation of the Arusha (1984) and Nairobi (1985) Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women. The conference was held in Abuja, Nigeria, from 6 to 10 November 1989. The major objectives of the Conference were to review and reflect on the degree of implementation of the Arusha and Nairobi Strategies, to discern short-comings, to design further strategies for overcoming the pitfalls and to project the future of the African women beyond the year 2000 in the context of social and economic development of the African region.

2. In line with the Conference objectives and within the context of the three objectives of the United Nations Decade for Women, namely Equality, Development and Peace, participating member States highlighted what had been done to implement the Strategies. Obstacles encountered, constraints experienced and future perspectives were discussed. In general, most countries observed and reported that there had been some modest progress following the implementation of the Strategies. At the end, the Conference adopted the Abuja Declaration on Participatory Development: The Role of Women in Africa in the 1990s.

3. Having assessed the current situation of women in Africa, within the context of the Arusha and Nairobi Strategies, the Abuja Declaration lists areas of slow progress and areas where implementation has been initiated. Areas of slow progress include, among others, employment, health, access to resources including credit and technology while areas where implementation is being initiated include, science and technology, decision-making mainstreaming and environment; areas of substantial progress include, education, agriculture and food production, law and legislation and institutional structures.

4. Following the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development, the primary objective of the present report is to further review and appraise the implementation of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies. The report is also a follow-up to the report presented in 1989 (document E/ECA/CM.15/17) to the ECA Conference of Ministers on the "Changing socio-economic conditions of women in Africa in the context of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies".

5. Accordingly, this review is in line with General Assembly resolution 42/62 on "Implementation of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women" adopted on 30 November 1987. In particular, paragraph 9 of the resolution reaffirmed the need for the United Nations to develop an integrated reporting system with the Commission on the Status of Women at its centre and, building upon existing information and resources, to monitor the review and appraisal of progress in the advancement of women, which are based on clear and relevant statistical and other measurable indicators and which will assist member States in identifying problems and in developing remedial measures, at the national, regional and international levels.

6. Taking into consideration reports and observations made by participating member States during the fourth Regional Conference in 1989, the present report will review activities undertaken by member States covering the period 1985-1990 giving attention to areas where there had been slow progress as stated in the Abuja Declaration.[1] The review will also reflect on the activities undertaken by United Nations agencies as stipulated in the Mid-term Review and Appraisal of the implementation of the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development, 1986-1990 (UN-PAAERD) in relation to the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies.

7. The paper is therefore presented as follows: part II of the review presents a conceptual framework of the long-term objectives of the Strategies, i.e., Equality, Development and Peace. Part III reviews the situation of women in political participation and decision-making; part IV provides sectoral analysis and reviews the current situation of women in education, employment and industry; part V reviews issues pertaining to law and legislation; part VI reviews progress made at the international level; and finally, part VII draws conclusions and advances recommendations.

II. EQUALITY, DEVELOPMENT AND PEACE

A. EQUALITY

8. The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies defined equality in economic and social participation. Participation in the economic and social spheres of life means the contribution made by individuals to any economic and social activity, the benefits the receive from it and their involvement at the decision-making level, as full members of society.[2] "Equality" envisaged in the Nairobi Strategies has yet to be reached because equality does not mean only the absence of discrimination but also equality of rights, responsibilities and opportunities.

9. In a number of African countries, equality is stipulated in national legislation, in constitutions and declarations, but have to contend with some traditional rigid attitudes.[3] The more women legislate for equality of rights in marriage, guardianship of children, custody of children, property ownership, etc., the more they will recognize the need for enforcement and monitoring mechanisms to bring about equality, and the more they will realize that they should

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[1] Abuja Declaration on Participatory Development: The Role of Women in Africa in the 1990s.

[2] Report of the Secretary-General, E/CN.6/1989/5.

[3] Speech presented by Mrs. Suzanne Mubarak, First Lady of Arab Republic of Egypt during the opening ceremony of the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development, Abuja, Nigeria 6 to 10 November 1989.

play a more dynamic role in decision-making in relation to the various aspects of life.[4] This report discusses equality in relation to employment, legislation, the application of laws and the like.

B. DEVELOPMENT

10. The ultimate goal of development in Africa is to ensure the overall well-being of the people through sustained improvement in their living standards.[5] It is predicated that development has to be engineered and sustained by the people themselves through their full and active participation.[6]

11. As former President Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere said: "Development brings freedom provided it is development of the people. But people cannot be developed, they can only develop themselves. A man develops himself by joining in free discussions of a new venture and participating in the subsequent decisions; he is not being developed if he is herded like an animal into a new venture."[7]

12. From a women in development perspective, there is a growing tendency to see the participation of women as a key economic factor in the whole development process. In this respect, some governments among member States have adopted national policies and plans oriented towards gender responsive planning and have given support to national machineries in their discharge of responsibilities as co-ordinators of women in development programmes.

13. The most common measures taken to promote the integration of women into economic development emphasize income-generating activities by the provision of vocational training and education. Accordingly, mainstreaming is being taken as an important mechanism for incorporating women in major programmes. The perspective is one of integrating women in development into all aspects of development assistance. The report reviews the various areas of development in which women have been involved and are making progress as well as experiencing socio-economic changes.

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[4] Ibid.

[5] Africa Alternative Framework to Structural Adjustment Programmes for Socio-economic Recovery and Transformation (AAF-SAP), E/ECA/CM.15/6/Rev. 3, April 1989.

[6] Ibid.

[7] Situation of Women in Tanzania, Ministry of Community Development, Culture, Youth and Sports, Dar-es-Salaam, 1988.

C. PEACE

14. Development cannot be achieved without peace and equality nor can universal peace be attained without the full and equal participation of women in all spheres of development and particularly in decision-making. In the area of peace, some governments have and are still playing a greater role and making contributions towards peace efforts particularly with regard to apartheid and refugee women in Southern Africa. However, in spite of these efforts, there are still obstacles at different levels including conflicts among countries, civil war, etc., whereby women and children are victims of circumstances. These require new orientations, approach and strategies for their removal, more especially as the worsening economic and social conditions in Africa continue to place severe limitations on available resources.

15. Participation of women in peace is seen in their struggle against apartheid and civil war among countries. In this context, it is difficult to bring up concrete examples of actions undertaken in the area of peace. Hence, peace is not documented in the sectoral review and analysis of this report.

III. ANALYSIS OF WOMEN'S POLITICAL PARTICIPATION AND DECISION-MAKING

16. Following the period of the struggle for national independence, women have been given in many countries of Africa recognition as a potential force capable of playing an active role, not only in the economic development of their respective countries, but also in the political arena. In the majority of African countries, women have the right to vote and are eligible for election to public office where they can exercise all public functions. However, despite this equality of political rights in law, women still play a minor political role at all levels including their participation in economic decision-making and management. Many reviews, research studies and reports have established the low participation and representation of women in economic decision-making, management and in politics.

17. In her global analysis of women in high-level political decision-making, Kathleen Staudt states that "political culture has its roots in a state formation process in which women had little part ..... . Those who study women's occupational integration into masculine institutions document tendencies from assimilation to routinized boundary heightening. Political institutions are one of the most masculine of all institutions, into which women may not easily integrate."[8] While a few women have succeeded in reaching the decision-making level in politics and in economic managerial level, and thereby have overcome some of the barriers and reduced overt male opposition, many obstacles still remain to be overcome before women can become an equal and visible party to decision-making processes.

18. Within the African region, data and information made available and collected from different sources shows that there has been notable increase in the number of women entering the arena of decision-making and power. This increase is seen in the number of judges, directors of

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[8] EGM/EPPDM/1989/WP.2. Paper presented at an Expert Group Meeting on Equality in Political Participation and decision-making held at Vienna, 18-22 September 1989.

institutions, commissioners, permanent/principal secretaries, managers of parastatal companies, ambassadors and ministers. On ministerial and members of parliament posts, it is not easy to present facts and figures that are valid for any one point in time throughout the world in general and Africa in particular. This is because the incumbents of ministerial posts are always changing due to the political changes taking place now and then in any given country as well as other factors.

19. Data on women in political life are in any case scarce, and totally missing are data on women behind the scenes who may have advisory positions but no titles. However, while the available statistics may be misleading in terms of the ability and knowledge acquired by women, they do paint a true picture of their minimal representation in the front line of political life.[9] As an example of the low representation of women at the decision-making level, table 1 below shows the proportion of decision-making positions held by women on a regional basis.

Table 1: Percentage of women in ministerial and sub-ministerial decision-making positions by region, 1987[10]

Region	Ministerial Level	Four highest levels
Africa	2.5	3.6
Asia and the Pacific	1.6	2.2
Latin America and the Caribbean	4.0	6.0
Socialist countries of Eastern Europe	4.6	3.7
Western Europe and other	8.9	7.5

Source: E/CN.6/1990/2

20. Accordingly, in an attempt to present an estimate percentage of women in the single or lower chamber of parliament, table 2 shows women in parliament as of 30 June 1989 in Africa as presented by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU). IPU is the world-wide organization of parliaments which works for peace and co-operation among peoples. As of mid-1989, 112 of the 145 legislative assemblies established in the world's sovereign States were represented in the IPU and that parliamentarians across the world represented 12.7 per cent women and 87.3 per cent men.

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[9] Women 2000, No. 1, 1990. Published to promote the goals of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women.

[10] For the purpose of this analysis, countries have been grouped according to the regional groupings used by the United Nations. "Western Europe and other" includes, in addition to European countries, Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States of America.

Table 2: Women in Parliament as of 30 June 1989 in Africa

Country	%	Country	%
Tunisia	4.3	Somalia	4.0
Algeria	2.4	Seychelles	16.0
Morocco	0	Kenya	1.0
Egypt	3.9	Uganda	n.a
Mali	6.1	Rwanda	15.7
Cape Verde	14.5	Mauritius	7.1
Togo	5.2	Malawi	8.1
Benin	n.a.	Mozambique	15.7
Sao Tome and Principe	11.8	Madagascar	n.a
Cameroon	14.4	Swaziland	n.a
Equatorial Guinea	n.a	Djibouti	0
Senegal	12.5	Ethiopia	6.4
Gambia	n.a	Tanzania	10.7
Guinea Bissau	n.a	Comoros	0
Liberia	6.2	Zambia	5.1
Cote d'Ivoire	5.7	Zimbabwe	9.0
Sierra Leone	n.a	Botswana	5.1
Central Africa Republic	0	Zaire	5.7
Gabon	13.3	Angola	14.5
Congo	9.8		

Source: IPU wall chart June 1989
n.a : not available

N.B. Some countries are not included in this list because they are either not IPU members or information was not available.

21. As shown in table 2 albeit information in some countries was not available, there is an indication that governments and women themselves have made some efforts to enter into the political arena. However, women's involvement in the political system of the country is still at a very low level mainly because of traditional attitudes, male-oriented systems and other factors. Women in decision-making political positions tend to be regarded as exceptions to the rule.

22. In general, and looking at tables 1 and 2, it is noted that African women are still inadequately represented in political processes at the national and international levels. Since all actions and projects flow from policy decisions and many such decisions are made without sufficient knowledge of the needs of women, this area is of crucial importance particularly since equality in political participation and decision-making is one of the major priorities for the

advancement of women in the 1990s. Without success in this area, other areas of advancement of women will be put at risk.

23. Equity strategies should be directed at increasing the number of women in decision-making positions. Facing the 1990s, the Abuja Declaration on Participatory Development: The Role of Women in Africa in the 1990s adopted at the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development recommends, among others, that by the year 2000 at least one in eight top policy- and decision-makers in Africa (cabinet ministers, high civil servants, top echelons of the armed forces, police and judiciary and top management in parastatals, and private corporations) should be a woman.[11] Furthermore, the Declaration recommends that the incidence and patterns of women's participation at the decision-making level should be studied with a view to identifying obstacles and strategies for overcoming those obstacles and that there is need to increase their access to information, develop their negotiating and organizational skills and fully exercise their voting skills.[12]

24. While recognizing the critical contributions made by women to African societies and economies and the extreme subordination and discrimination suffered by women in Africa, participants to the International Conference on Popular Participation in the Recovery and Development Process in Africa which adopted the African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation (Arusha 1990) agreed that the "attainment of equal rights by women in social, economic and political spheres must become a central feature of a democratic and participatory pattern of development". It was also the consensus of the Conference that the attainment of women's full participation must be given highest priority by society as a whole and African Governments in particular.[13]

IV. SECTORAL ANALYSIS AND CURRENT SITUATION OF WOMEN IN EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT AND INDUSTRY

A. EDUCATION AND TRAINING

25. Human resources help to accumulate capital, exploit natural resources and build social, economic and political organizations necessary for economic development. A country that neglects to develop the skills and knowledge of its entire population and utilize them effectively

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[11] Abuja Declaration on Participatory Development: The Role of Women in Africa in the 1990s, UNECA, 1990.

[12] Ibid.

[13] African Charter for Popular Participation in Development and Transformation (Arusha 1990), E/ECA/CM.16/11.

in the national economy is unlikely, in the long run, to develop anything else. In Africa, women constitute more than half of the population and hence a potential human resource which needs to be developed, appropriately utilized and exploited for effective development. Education according to Mrs. Suzanne Mubarak, First Lady of the Arab Republic of Egypt, is the foundation for the promotion and improvement of the status of women. it is the basic tool which equips women to fulfil their duties as wives, mothers and partners in development. Education mobilizes the untapped resourcefulness of women in order for them to contribute most effectively to their surrounding society. Schooling imparts knowledge, skills and brings about new positive attitudes towards the welfare of the society.[14]

26. To solve the serious problems of today within the social-cultural, economic and political dimensions, there is need to give more attention to women and young girls in the area of education and training. High illiteracy rates for women are a major obstacle to their effective participation in the industrialization process, for example. Modern technology not only reduces the number of jobs but also requires high levels of skill to fill the ones that are available. More men than women possess these skills as few women have the opportunity to acquire them.[15]

27. Taking stock at what has happened since 1985 and in particular 1989 in the area of education and training, this review shows that governments have attained achievements in education both in general as well as specifically for girls, and that the education of girls has increased substantially. Although still high in a few countries, illiteracy is said to be decreasing. In the area of adult education, many countries in Africa have established or expanded functional literacy programmes for adults, especially for rural women. Functional literacy programmes as had been reported by many member States focus on education in the fields of health, nutrition and home economics. On policies to improve women's education and training, many countries have introduced measures to increase the enrolment of girls and provision of training opportunities at various levels, the location of more funds to education as well as the promotion of education and training for women in non-traditional areas such as high technology.

28. With regard to science and technology, some countries such as Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Zimbabwe, the United Republic of Tanzania, Senegal, to mention a few, have introduced measures to increase women's participation through the implementation of consciousness-raising programmes to achieve equality between the sexes, by the revision of school curricula and by the promotion of equal opportunities in vocational training.

29. In all, there has been an increase in the enrolment of girls at the primary, secondary and post- secondary levels. Some countries have achieved parity at the primary school level while

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[14] Speech presented by Mrs. Suzanne Mubarak, First Lady of the Arab Republic of Egypt at the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development, Abuja, Nigeria, 6 to 10 November 1989.

[15] Women and Industrialization in Developing Countries, UNIDO, Vienna. United Nations, New York, 1981.

dropouts at the secondary and post-secondary levels continue to exist and even more for various reasons such as teenage pregnancy, early marriage and traditional practices that tend to value the education of boys more than that of girls. A look at tables 3.1 and 3.2 on pupils enrolled at the first level (primary education) males and females respectively from 1985 to 1990, there has been a tremendous increase in the enrolment of girls. In the case of Lesotho and Botswana for instance, there are more female enrolled than boys. The increase of female enrolment [1985-1990 (see table 3.2)] in countries (randomly selected) such as Algeria, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Burundi, Kenya, Mozambique and Uganda according to the estimated figures represent 23, 59, 41, 58, 29, 19 and 53 per cent respectively.

30. Tables 3.3 and 3.4 show female enrolment at the second and third levels respectively for the period 1985-1990. Looking at the estimated figures, there is certainly an increase of enrolled female students at both levels. However, compared to the estimated figures of female enrolment at the first level (see table 3.2), there is a big dropout of female students. This implies that the higher the educational level, the lower the female number enrolled.

31. In general, significant improvement in the enrolment of females at all levels is noted particularly at the first level where the number of female enrolments is higher compared to the second and third levels where the trend towards a decreasing enrolment of females is more pronounced as evidenced in tables 3.3 and 3.4. If women are to improve their socio-economic conditions and their participation in all spheres of development, they require access to all forms of education and training. Member States have to continue making every effort to implement measures that would provide more education and training opportunities for girls/women.

32. Accordingly, as has been recommended in the Abuja Declaration under education, by the year 2000, parity in literacy, primary and secondary education and at least 40 per cent of university enrolment should be achieved.[16] Measures should be taken to educate the public that changes in women's education must be seen in terms of enabling women and girls to secure employment and equal participation with men in the political and economic fields. On their part, women in high positions should play a more active role in educating their fellow women about the role women should play in women's emancipation.

B. EMPLOYMENT

33. Despite the improvement in access to education for women, the long-term effect on women's employment in the formal sector has in general, not improved. This review discusses employment in three categories: wage/salary employment (formal employment, e.g., in social services and industries), agriculture and informal sector.

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[16] Abuja Declaration. UNECA, 1990.

(a) Formal sector

34. According to an ILO report, the level of women's participation in wage employment during the past 15 years in sub-Saharan Africa has rapidly increased. Between 1970 and 1985, the size of female employment increased from less than 1 million to almost 4 million corresponding to annual growth rate of 10 per cent during the period. As a proportion of the total female labour force, this rose from 1.9 per cent in 1970 to 5.0 per cent in 1985. In the share of women in total modern sector employment amounted to about 19 per cent compared to 12 per cent in 1970.[17] Despite this growth in the share of women in modern sector employment, their overall participation in the sector still remains low. In fact, because of the economic crisis and retrenchment, employment opportunities have been reduced. As a result, female unemployment has increased while male unemployment has decreased.

35. Statistics by the United Nations Department of Public Information shows that in 1984, female unemployment worldwide was 12.9 per cent and by 1988 it had increased to 13.4 per cent. Male unemployment, on the other hand, was 9.4 per cent in 1984 and decreased to 8.3 per cent in 1988. Despite governments' declared intentions for equal work for equal pay, worldwide, women still earn only two-thirds of men's pay and often depend on informal trade for their survival. For example, it is estimated that in Nigeria, 94 per cent of women are engaged in the informal sector.

36. There are, however, variations among various countries in the share of female labour force in wage employment. The fastest growth rate is observed in Botswana where the share of modern sector in total female labour force rose from 6 per cent in 1970 to 25 per cent in 1985. In Malawi, it rose from 1.5 to 6 per cent during the same period. In Liberia, it rose from 3.6 to 9 per cent and in Swaziland, it rose from 9 to 20 per cent. Some countries fell behind this general upward trend. In Ethiopia, for example, modern sector share in total female labour force declined from 0.9 per cent in 1970 to 0.8 per cent in 1985. Overall, the highest share in 1985 was found in Mauritius at 59 per cent.[18]

37. On the basis of available data on 11 selected countries for 1987 as shown in table 4, the following pattern is observed: most women are concentrated in community, social and personal services where they account for 28.9 per cent in the case of Kenya. In Mauritius, 57.4 per cent women are in manufacturing sector, while very few women are employed in electricity and water as well as construction.

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[17] ILO/JASPA Women's employment promotion in Africa: patterns and relevant issues, 1990.

[18] Ibid.

Table 4: Sectoral distribution of female wage employment in selected countries (% of women in the various sectors of employment)

	Kenya	Zambia	Sierra Leone	Tanzania	Botswana	Gambia	Malawi	Mauri-tius	Niger	Swazi-Land	Zimba-bwe
	1987	1980	1974	1984	1986	1986	1986	1987	1986	1986	1985
Agric/forestry	23.5	7.1	30.1	9.0	13.4	18.7	15.5	26.6	3.1	21.8	17.6
Mining/quarry	2.2	5.4	0.9	11.2	7.0			49.4	2.6	4.3	2.2
Manufacturing	10.0	5.7	8.3	10.0	24.1	18.0	24.2	57.4	4.5	31.1	6.8
Electricity/water	8.9	1.5	10.1	8.7	6.5	5.8	8.5	3.5	2.0	7.9	3.9
Construction	8.4	1.9	0.6	6.8	4.7	1.9	1.0	1.6	1.5	3.0	1.6
Wholesale/retail Restaurants/Hotel	16.4	8.4	46.9	6.8	45.8	18.1	7.4	21.8	7.6	41.9	15.4
Transport and Communications	10.0	5.8	1.9	5.0	14.2	7.5	5.6	8.2	6.7	12.6	6.2
Finance insurance Real estate business Services	21.6	11.9	18.0	29.5	32.1	15.8	9.9	29.3	22.9	35.5	34
Community/social personal services	28.9	11.0		26.4	37.9	21.2	18.0	20.9	17.3	45	24.8
All industries	21.7	7.3	28.0	16	29.9	15.2	14.8	34.5	7.1	27.7	16.6

Source: ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics (various issues), ILO, Geneva.

38. In general, sectoral breakdown of female labour force in 1985 in Africa was estimated as follows: 75 per cent were concentrated in agriculture; 18 per cent in the informal sector and 6 per cent in the modern sector (see table 5). Compared to 1990 as shown in table 5, there is an observed 1 per cent increase in the agriculture sector, a slight decline in the informal and modern sectors.

Table 5: Distribution of female labour force by major economic sectors (%)

Major sector	1970	1980	1985	1990
Agriculture	84.0	76.0	75.0	76.0
Informal Sector	10.1	14.8	17.9	17.7
Modern Sector	1.9	3.6	5.9	5.0
Unemployed	4.0	5.6	1.2	1.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: JASPA Data Bank, 1990.

(b) Female employment in agriculture

39. In 1990, the number of females in the agricultural labour force in sub-Saharan Africa amounted to more than 55 million, which represents 43 per cent of the total labour force. In most countries, women form the bulk of the labour force engaged in food production and produce nearly 60 per cent of the food that is consumed by rural households.[19] In most cases and in the rural areas in particular, women provide the major labour input especially in food production. According to a recent publication, statistics show that 97.8 per cent of the economically active women in the United Republic of Tanzania are involved in agriculture but in the whole country only 5 per cent of the agricultural employees are women.[20]

40. During the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development held in Abuja, Nigeria in November 1989, and having reviewed the implementation of the Strategies, it was observed that women work harder than men particularly in such agricultural tasks as land preparation, planting, sowing, weeding, processing and marketing of food crops. In addition to the agricultural production activities, it was observed that women also play a multiplicity of other roles such as non-farm income-generating activities in addition to their reproductive role. Due to a variety of circumstances, it was noted that women were also increasingly assuming major responsibilities as heads of household in many countries such as Swaziland, Mali, Kenya, to mention a few. In Lesotho for instance, 60-80 per cent of all rural households may be, de facto and de jure, female headed.[21]

41. In general, according to the information gathered by ECA and as was reported by many member States participating in the Regional Conference in Abuja, Nigeria (1989) agricultural production was being improved through the supply of such inputs as selected seeds, fertilizer and plant protection facilities. Agricultural extension services were currently centred on the participation of women farmers with a view to raising their productivity.

42. The activities of several United Nations agencies have also focused on women farmers within the context of the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development 1986-1990 (UN-PAAERD). The UN-PAAERD in the agriculture development sector at the national level states that:

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[19] ILO, Women and Land, report on the Regional African Workshop on Women's Access to Land in Strategy for Employment Promotion, Poverty Alleviation and Household Food Security, 17-21 october, Harare, Zimbabwe, ILO, Geneva, 1989.

[20] Situation of women in Tanzania, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania, 1988.

[21] Government of Lesotho; Lesotho country report on Progress in Agrarian Reform and Rural Development with Selected Rural Development Indicators. Maseru, March 1983, p. vi.

" Africa's priority programme lays considerable emphasis on the food and agriculture sector. The priority programme seeks to revitalize the more dynamic and internally generated forces for growth and development. Primary focus will be on women farmers who contribute significantly to agriculture productivity." (UN-PAAERD, 1986-1990)

43. Within this context and in line with the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies, a review of activities carried out by the United Nations agencies indicates some initiatives towards strengthening the capacities of African women farmers. These initiatives include activities such as: training and extension services; the provision of credit and new technologies, research and policy support. United Nations agencies such as ILO, UNIDO, IFAD and ATRCW have made efforts to strengthen the capacities of women farmers through staff training, training of extension workers particularly female agricultural extension workers with rural women; training women in technical skills, income-generating skills, food processing; training and formation of women's groups through the integrated rural programmes; and training non-literate women farmers through the use of audio-visual materials, interviews.[22]

44. In general, these activities have provided women with access to employment, increased income and strengthened women s organizations as a result of learning and acquiring negotiation skills. In the area of credit, some agencies' activities have shown a move towards providing women with access to credit through agricultural credit projects in areas such as food processing, marketing; aid fund such as ILO's allocation of its budget to projects for rural women for credit; credit support system for productive activities of women under the "credit support system for productive activities of women" project by UNDP and the revolving loan funds (RLF). UNIFEM's direct experience with credit systems in a number of countries, coupled with surveys available on tne impact of revolving loan fund, and other programmes on women, has pointed to the conclusion that women's access to credit can significantly improve their production and marketing capacities and that low-income women are reliable borrowers and are willing to take risks.[23]

45. Under technologies, new technologies have been provided to women farmers and are aimed at lessening their burdens, improving their productivity and the quality of their production. The various technologies include: food processing technologies, transport devices, food storage, farm implements, conservation of water resources, improved stoves and energy. ILO provides to women farmers technologies for palm oil processing, coconut oil processing, fish smoking, shea butter processing and grinding mills. Countries involved are Ghana and Lesotho. UNIDO provides food processing technologies to women in Zambia on pilot fruit processing by rural women; assistance to rural women engaged in salt processing in Nigeria; women in salt production in the Niger and salt production and marketing in the Gambia. In April 1989, IFAD

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[22] UN-PAAERD, Report on the Engagement of African Women as Agents of Development at all levels, UNIFEM and ECA/ATRCW, New York, March 1990.

[23] Ibid.

technical assistance grant for a subregional pilot project to develop and disseminate appropriate food processing equipment for Mali and Burkina Faso was granted. UNDP is currently undertaking a project on "increasing rural women's food productivity through agricultural technology, transfer and adoption in Africa". This project is currently under preparatory assistance phase and will develop a method for assembling and disseminating "production package" adopted to specific agro-ecological zones for major crops cultivated by women. Activities are planned to start in early 1991 and participating countries include Ghana, Kenya, Sierra Leone, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

46. Albeit it is difficult to measure the impact these projects have on the women, it may be pointed out that women involved in these activities have and are acquiring technological skills and support which can enhance and increase their productivity in agriculture, including marketing skills.

(c) Women in the informal sector

47. Apart from the agricultural sector as discussed above, the informal sector is the second largest employer of female labour force in most African countries. According to an ILO report, in 1990, about 16 million women in sub-Saharan Africa were estimated to be engaged in the sector.[24] This represented 35 per cent of total employment in the informal sector. Compared to the previous years, female employment in the informal sector increased from 10 per cent of total female labour force to 14.8 per cent in 1980, 17.9 per cent in 1985, and 17.7 per cent in 1990.[25] These imply an average annual growth rate of more than 6 per cent for female employment in the sector. In other words, this means that the extent of women's participation in the sector has increased by two and a half fold since the 1970s. This corresponds to almost the entry of 0.5 million women each year since 1990. Table 6 below shows women in the informal sector in selected sub-Saharan African countries for 1970, 1980, 1985 and 1990.

48. Reasons and/or factors explaining women's increase in the informal sector are linked to the lack of alternative options for income-generation activities especially for the large number of women without formal education; the economic crisis which has intensified women's role of compensating for changes in the labour market and that far-reaching transformation in economic structure increasingly leave women to carry the burden of satisfying the full spectrum of the family's basic survival needs.

49. During the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development, a review on the role of women in the informal sector showed that employment in the informal sector continues to play a key role and a hope for survival for a greater majority of women particularly in the urban area. Women are engaged mainly in petty trading, small-scale

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[24] Women's Employment Promotion in Africa: Patterns and Relevant Issues, ILO/JASPA, 1990.

[25] Ibid.

processing, and selling of food items, handicrafts, etc.,[26] as evidenced in table 6. Outside the trading activities, the importance of women in activities such as food processing, shoe-making, textile/tailoring, wood working, metal fabricating, garage/repair services and other general services range from a high of 17 per cent in Kinshasa, Zaire, to a low 6 per cent in Nigeria.[27]

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[26] ILO, Report of the Director General, Seventh African Regional Conference, Harare, November - December 1988, ILO, Geneva, 1988.

[27] ILO/JASPA, Women's Employment Promotion in Africa: Patterns and Relevant Issues, 1990.

Table 6: Women in the informal sector in selected sub-Saharan African countries

	Total informal sector employment (thousands)				Female informal sector employment (thousands)							
					Total				Trade only			
	1970	1980	1985	1990	1970	1980	1985	1990	1970	1980	1985	1990
Congo	86	130	160	195	23	35	43	46	18	27	34	37
Ghana	358	683	946	1266	114	219	303	346	94	177	246	281
Guinea	147	246	318	406	47	79	102	109	39	66	86	92
Liberia	70	134	186	249	30	58	80	98	18	35	48	60
Madagascar	78	145	198	265	26	48	65	77	21	39	53	64
Kenya	195	374	518	693	61	116	161	254	51	97	135	213
Nigeria	3418	6347	8649	11574	1018	1904	2595	2997	899	1650	2249	2597
Somalia	224	429	594	795	72	137	190	275	59	112	154	224
Tanzania	668	1281	1774	2374	203	384	532	675	179	333	461	585
Togo	70	141	200	276	27	55	78	89	23	47	66	75
Zaire	1335	2478	3376	4518	498	917	1249	1124	351	644	878	790

Source: JASPA Data Bank, 1990.

50. Though information on women in the informal sector is not quantified, the above figures are an indication of the predominant position of women in the informal sector as family workers.

51. In conclusion, despite the improvement in access to education for women, the long-term effects on women's employment in the formal sector have in general not improved. Women have been greatly affected through for example retrenchment policies and de-emphasis of the public sector as a major source of employment in the modern sector. This situation has potentially disturbing consequences particularly for the prospects of achieving significant improvement by the year 2000. In view of the low participation of women in the formal sector, many women have found themselves in the informal sector with all the disadvantages that it represents. In the agriculture sector, though there have been some improvement in the training of extension women workers, training for skills acquisition in various technologies, support services and the provision of farm implements, women in the rural areas continue to work harder than before. Credit, marketing, extension and input distribution are still inadequate to meet the needs of the rural small growers and farmers especially in the food sector. In this connection, women are still the most disadvantaged.

52. Since over 50 per cent of the labour force in agriculture is made up of women, it is of concern that the conditions under which rural women work as food producers still remains very primitive. Intensified efforts must be made to promote access to technology, training, credit

facilities and to drastically improve the general social and physical environment if her productivity is to increase.

C. WOMEN IN INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

53. Paragraph 191 of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies states that women should be viewed as users and agents of change in science and technology, and their technological and managerial skills should be enhanced in order to increase national self-reliance in industrial production and to promote innovations in productive design, product adaptation and production techniques. At the same time, industrial technologies should be applied appropriately to the needs and situations of women so as to free them from time- and energy-consuming tasks.[28]

54. Although the role and the potential of women for increased participation in socio-economic development is generally recognized in most countries, the contribution of women to the industrialization process is still minimal. The fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development (Abuja, Nigeria, 1989) noted that a significant number of women were already engaged in industry. However, on a country-to-country basis, the participation of women in the industrial labour force in Africa was only a very small percentage of the total. Different country reports presented at the Conference indicated a number of important production lines that more commonly involved women such as food processing, textiles, animal products, household equipment manufacturing, pharmaceutical and medical products. Accordingly, in a study on women and the Industrial Development Decade for Africa undertaken in Egypt, Cote d'Ivoire, Nigeria and the United Republic of Tanzania, in all four case studies, women form a small proportion of all modern sector employees. African women employed in the modern manufacturing sector are concentrated in a limited number of industries. These are usually light consumer-oriented industries such as food processing, pharmaceutical and electronics.[29]

55. Within the industries covered by the four countries case studies it was reported that women generally hold low skill, low wage jobs which carry few opportunities for advancement and undertake repetitive work devoid of any decision-making powers.[30] Similarly, a recent study on women and agro-industries undertaken in Botswana, Lesotho, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe established the low participation and low skill, low wage jobs occupied by women in agro-industries.[31] For the most part, women's participation in industrial production is confined to industries with low technology, low capital requirements and low productivity or

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[28] The Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, United Nations, Nairobi, Kenya, 1985.

[29] Women and Industrial Development Decade for Africa, E/ECA/ATRCW/86/05.

[30] Ibid.

[31] The Role of Women in Agro-industries in four Eastern and Southern Africa Countries: Botswana, Lesotho, Tanzania and Zimbabwe, ECA/ATRCW/88/2, 1988.

industries that, in spite of high capital requirements and sophisticated technologies, are highly labour-intensive.[32] The common factors for women workers in these two types of industries are low wages and poor working conditions.

56. In spite of the low participation of women in the industrial sector, it is to be recognized that in many countries of Africa, women have substantially contributed to the development of traditional small- and medium-scale industries that still account for major industrial production and in some cases, women's contribution has provided for the countries entry into the world market. The pattern of industrial growth in Africa and other developing countries has tended to favour only a small part of the population, often those living in urban rather than rural areas. This calls for increased efforts to develop industry in rural areas on a greater scale. For this to be achieved, there is a need for women in the rural area to participate in the industrialization process.

57. Tables 7.1 and 7.2 on economically active population - sectoral distribution for females and males in industry, respectively, show the percentage of female and male active population in the industrial sector. As indicated earlier, with the exception of Morocco and Tunisia, the percentage of women's involvement in this sector is low as compared to male. However, table 7.1 shows that the participation of women in countries such as Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Tunisia and Cape Verde is substantial although it is more often than not ignored and its value remains only partially recognized. This substantial participation may be due to the fact that some countries have expanded their industries and this has provided more opportunities for women to work in the industrial sector.

58. As was noted by the fourth Regional Conference (Abuja, Nigeria 1989) as well as from the findings of recent research studies, a number of constraints to a fuller participation of women in the industrialization process are mainly of an economic, political, social, legal and psychological nature. In the first place, social and attitudinal barriers as reflected in such discriminatory practices as unequal wages, reluctane to employ women at higher echelons of industry, and lack of facilities for assisting women to set up their own enterprises continue to put women at a disadvantageous position. Secondly, at this time of acute unemployment and under-employment, women are finding it particularly hard to find work in industry. Thirdly, the inadequate industrial capacity of many African countries is another major constraint to creating increased employment opportunities.

59. In this regard, no special consideration has been given to the promotion and development of industrial projects that women could initiate. Lack of effort in this regard is most apparent in small-scale industry and in the rural areas where women have the potential to play a significant role in industrial development. However, for rural women to be able to play a significant role, special measures are needed to remove a number of constraints, such as lack of information on investment opportunities; lack of available finance for rural women, such as credit; lack of

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[32] Women and Industrialization in Developing Countries. UNIDO, United Nations, New York, 1981.

entrepreneurial, managerial and technical skills, particularly among rural women; lack of sufficient training and skill improvement facilities, particularly those leading to overall entrepreneurship development such as marketing, credit and production management; and lack of information for women on existing facilities and programmes related to industrial development.

60. Concerning industrial production, few women have the minimum technical skills required in industry, particularly those required by modern and technical technologies. This problem is compounded by the fact that there appears to be discrimination against women when it comes to placement in existing industrial training programmes including on-the-job training. In fact, technological advancements in industry are often used as a pretext for excluding women from high-paying positions in industry, while little has or is being done to upgrade women's skills to correspond to such technological changes.

61. Inadequate training and acquisition of technical skills on the part of women is also attributed to the low enrolment of females in science and technological-based training programmes at all levels of the education system particularly at the secondary school, university and at technical schools and colleges. Some studies on women in science and technology undertaken in Kenya, Sierra Leone and Swaziland have established the low enrolment of females in science-based subjects.[33]

62. If women are to improve their position in the industrial work force, they require easier access to all forms of education and training. At present, they face discrimination by circumstance or intent and this perpetuates sexual inequalities in jobs, power and personal relations. Women's under-representation and under-achievement in science and technology education has far-reaching implications on their employment in the science-related and technical fields. It has a dampening effect on the proponents of women's rights, especially in the area of equality in education and employment. Women in Africa constitute more than half of the population, therefore this potential human resources must be identified, trained and developed for equal participation in the science and technological transformation taking place in Africa.

63. At the decision-making and planning levels, women's interests are usually excluded from the decision-making and planning bodies involved in the industrialization process, with the result that project ideas developed by women for their own benefit often never reach the decision level and that industrialization plans with adverse effects on women may easily be approved and implemented. Until a significant degree of involvement of women in decision-making could be secured, discrimination against women in industry would continue. Since women are prime contributors to, as well as beneficiaries of, the processes of industrial development, it is important that women's views concerning priorities and elements of change within development should be taken into account in any consideration of new industrial development strategies, policies and programmes.

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[33] Research on "Women and the Scientific Professions in Africa": The Case of Kenya, Sierra Leone and Swaziland, 1988, UNECA/ATRCW.

64. Industrial technologies should be applied appropriately to women's needs and situations, so as to free women from time- or energy- consuming tasks as much as possible, in order to create the opportunity for larger number of women to engage in income-generating and development activities. Increasing the number of women in the industrialization process does not mean more women should gain access to positions held by men but implies a total restructuring of all economic, social, educational and legal structures whereby both women and men are equally able to participate in the total economic development process that provides increasing opportunities for all.

V. LAW AND LEGISLATION

65. According to the assessment made during the fourth Regional Conference (1989) which reviewed the implementation of the Strategies, law and legislation was one of the areas considered of substantial progress. The main international instrument promoting equality between the sexes is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women which by 31 January 1990 had been ratified or acceded to by 101 States.[34] According to the IPPF wall chart the Convention has been ratified as of June 1990 by 103 out of the 159 United Nations member States.

66. In the African region, 25 countries have ratified the Convention, seven countries have signed but not ratified, seven countries have ratified but with reservations and 12 countries have not signed and ratified the Convention. According to the review and appraisal by the Division for the Advancement of Women, about half of the developing countries including those in the African region claim to have achieved de jure equality. However, despite this progress, many countries in Africa indicate that inequality still exists in certain provisions, particularly those pertaining to property, family law, employment legislation and the application of laws. During the Regional Conference (1989), many countries reported that amendments or revisions of some existing laws have been made to ensure the rights of women and to improve their status and eliminate discrimination particularly in the field of civil law. Some countries mentioned the revision of laws regarding equal employment opportunity acts and the implementation of equal pay for equal work.

67. Measures to eliminate de facto discrimination through legal literacy programmes, legal assistance and counselling for women, legal clinics, public legal information on women's rights are provided by various government departments, legal aid centres and women's organizations. With regard to equality in political participation, most countries stated that efforts have been made to increase the representation of women at all levels of the political ruling party system i.e. from the village, community, district, provincial and national levels. Action taken to encourage the participation of women in politics include training programmes for women to improve their management leadership skills, promotion of women's participation in regional and international meetings and measures to ensure that the political interests of women are represented.

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[34] Women 2000, No. 2, 1990. Review and Appraisal 1990. (Published by the Division for the Advancement of Women Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs, Vienna.

68. The Convention is an important touchstone of progress. It provides hope and a framework for action. Although submission to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women indicate that many countries have passed laws indicating equality in divorce, in practice customary, traditional and religious laws override legislation. Right to maternity leave and job protection during maternity are important indicators of the extent to which a government is committed to protecting women in their dual productive and reproductive roles. Some countries have provided measures on maternity leave while others allow maternity leave but without pay.

69. In general, it may be concluded that many member States have enacted reforms to ensure that women have equal opportunities to participate in economic and social life. These efforts can be assessed through the promulgation of improved national legislation on employment, maternity leave, marriage, inheritance and property, education and constitutional rights. However, efforts on the part of the women to know, understand, and exercise their rights is essential if they are to overcome some of the legal barriers to their participation in socio-economic activities.

VI. PROGRESS AT THE INTERNATIONAL LEVEL

70. Since the Nairobi Conference, a concerted effort has been made to improve the capacity of the United Nations system to deliver technical co-operation for the benefit of women, both by incorporating it into mainstream activities and developing approaches to deal directly with the concerns of women. The Commission on the Status of Women has taken a vigorous and determined lead in overseeing the incorporation of the Strategies throughout the United Nations system. The activities of the system during the period 1986-1989 appear mostly in the form of meetings, documents and technical co-operation. Between January 1986 and December 1989, it is estimated that roughly 380 meetings on the subject of women took place within the United Nations organizations.[35]

71. Organizations such as the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) is mandated to promote research for women. It has given priority to the programme on information, documentation and communication. While the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) is mandated to finance innovative and experimental activities directly benefiting women, in line with national and regional priorities. UNIFEM has and continues to make critical contributions to women and development by providing access to improved technologies, training and credit. UNIFEM has initiated a number of projects and activities with emphasis given to agriculture and food security, credit and mainsteaming programmes. UNIFEM's African Investment Plan (AIP) which, in line with the priority needs of the region, has strengthened the capacity of (a) food cycle technologies and African women farmers; (b) NGOs to promote food security; (c) credit support system; and (d) regional and

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[35] Women 2000, No. 2, 1990, Review and Appraisal 1990.

national institutions for programming and planning for WID.[36] UNIFEM's African Investment Plan has been adjusted (1989) in light of the United Nations Programme of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development, 1986-1990 (UN-PAAERD) and in response to the economic crisis.

72. Efforts are undertaken by UNIDO to give consideration to the role of women in technical co-operation projects, study and research activities particularly those dealing with agro-industry and small-scale industry promotion. UNIDO's activities for the integration of women in industrial development in Africa include advisory services to governments on policy measures and specific projects to promote the integration of women in industrial development; development and dissemination of food processing technologies for rural women. Exploratory missions to Burkina Faso, Mali, the Niger, Senegal and Togo have been undertaken to survey technologies used by rural women in these countries. Other activities involve entrepreneurial and managerial skill development for women entrepreneurs. Training programme in food processing for women entrepreneurs has been developed.[37]

73. Within its mandate for population activities, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) continues to extend its efforts in supporting projects specifically designed to improve the status of women and ensuring that all projects take the interests and the role of women fully into account in their design, appraisal and implementation. Efforts have been made to strengthen the capacity of institutions including women's bureaux and Non-governmental Organizations responsible for the advancement of women in countries such as Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Mozambique, Angola and the Central African Republic. Between 1987-1988, the Fund provided assistance to at least 10 sub-Saharan African countries namely Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Cote d'Ivoire, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, the Niger, Senegal and the United Republic of Tanzania to conduct national population censuses.

74. UNDP has taken women's programmes very seriously and has funded a number of projects in various spheres of development at the regional, subregional and national levels. Within the Desertification Control Programme, UNEP in co-operation with UNESCO, supported a seminar on "The role of women in pastoral and agro-pastoral societies in the improvement and management of arid and semi-arid reserves in Africa in April 1989 in Dakar. The seminar aimed at increasing women's access to training and technology to combat famine and food scarcity in these areas of depleted natural resources.

75. Other United Nations agencies such as UNHCR, WHO and FAO continue to carry out activities within their respective mandates with the view to improve the socio-economic conditions of women in Africa.

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[36] Report to the fourth Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in Development on the Implementation of the Arusha Strategies, Regional Perspective, E/ECA/ATRCW/RC1 WD.4/3, 1990.

[37] Ibid.

76. The Economic Commission for Africa through its unit, the African Training and Research Centre for Women and other substantive Divisions have made viable contributions to the women in development (WID) programmes in the region. ATRCW activities include monitoring changes in the situation of African women in the context of the Strategies; promoting women in small-scale enterprises with particular emphasis on improving the managerial capabilities of women; the role of women in the informal sector and access of women to scientific and technical fields; enhancing the capacity of national machineries to incorporate gender issues in national development plans; and sectoral analysis of emerging socio-economic trends and their impact on African women.

77. On account of the above, ATRCW has tackled the activities from different angles and through systematic studies, training seminars designed to promote and improve the socio-economic conditions of women. In its efforts to improve the working conditions of women, a project on improving women's access to credit as recommended in the Strategies is being implemented. Funded by SIDA, the project involves training programmes in management, credit techniques and pilot projects in Ethiopia, Rwanda and Uganda. Research competition for women in Eastern and Southern Africa in the informal and agro-industry sectors is being undertaken by 10 women researchers. This has been made possible under Ford Foundation grant. As regards information network in Africa, ATRCW disseminates reports/documents to member States, organizations, national libraries, training and research institutes as well as interested individuals.

78. Looking into the future, ATRCW will give attention to improving communication networks of the Centre; monitoring the implementation of the Nairobi Forward-looking Strategies and the Abuja Declaration on Participatory Development: The Role of Women in the 1990s; access of women to education and training in science and technology; promotion of women's participation at the decision-making level through leadership training, co-ordination and harmonization of activities on WID with subregional and regional organizations. These and others will be the major focus of activities for the future.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusions

79. The economic conditions of the 1980s, by restricting growth and reducing national capacity to mobilize the public sector for social and economic change, have lessened the likelihood of rapid progress towards achieving the objectives of the Strategies. In Africa, economic stagnation, continued population increase, the prolonged international debt crisis and the adjustment policies designed to mitigate it have constrained the activities of women as individuals, as careers and providers for families and households and as participants in the practical development of their countries. Accordingly, pre-existing conditions of inequality between men and women in health and nutrition, levels of literacy and training, access to education and economic opportunity, and in participation in decision-making at all levels have sometimes been exacerbated both by the crises themselves and by the policies adopted to cope with them.

80. Although both women and men have suffered and continue to suffer the effects of the crisis, it is more often women who are forced to modify their lives to adjust to the changed economic circumstances of their households, thus giving the current economic situation its gender dimension. In countries where adjustment has been particularly severe, there has been a tendency for girls to be withdrawn from school, in order to help families in economic activities.

81. Economic recovery and advancement towards the social and political goals of development require the participation of the entire population. As stated by His Excellency General Ibrahim Babangida, President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria during the fourth Regional Conference:

> "national development would be meaningless and incomplete without the involvement of women, a fact that justified the goals of the United Nations Decade for Women, i.e., Equality, Development and Peace. The development of a nation should be carried out in partnership with the women and no one gender should be seen as either the senior or junior partner in the relationship."

82. The question is how policies and measures to restore and stimulate growth can be combined with programmes to eliminate basic inequalities and barriers in terms of access to services and economic opportunities.

83. Despite the economic crisis and obstacles encountered in the implementation of the Strategies, African Governments have by no doubt made, at various levels, efforts to improve the socio-economic conditions of women by recognizing the key role played by women in the development process and, to some extent, by guaranteeing them equal access to available opportunities and resources. Such efforts as indicated in this review can be seen in the ratification of the United Nations Conventions on Women by different countries in national legislation on employment, maternity protection, marriage, inheritance and property rights. Most

African countries have enshrined in their constitutions the principles of political, economic, social and civil rights for all their citizenry - men and women.

84. Secondly, this review and appraisal of the implementation of the Strategies shows further that African Governments have directed considerable amount of resources and energy to expanding educational opportunities. In many cases, the share of females in total enrolment at the first and second levels has increased at a more rapid rate than that of males. Gender parity at least at first level has been achieved in a few countries and is likely to be achieved in the foreseeable future. With regard to science and technology some countries have introduced measures to increase women's participation and enrolment in science-based training programmes.

85. In the employment sector, the review shows that there has been slow progress particularly in the modern sector, while a great number of women are engaged in the informal sector. Participation of women in the industrial sector still remains at a very low level with the exception of a few countries. This is an area where further attention should be given to upgrade women's technological skills and their level of participation.

86. In terms of institution building, African Governments have made and continue to make efforts to upgrade or supplement the original structures given to the national machineries. Some countries have taken measures to make national machineries more effective by giving them higher status within the government system and or by creating a technical committee aimed at providing advice and technical assistance to the national machineries. Some United Nations agencies have also given support to institution building.

87. In general, at the individual level, women themselves have begun to view their condition in wider terms and perspectives; their rights as citizens, their struggle for economic survival; pursuing professional career development and have become more resourceful in their own personal capacity. In some ways, this is a sign of change towards improving their socio-economic conditions and self-sustainment since the Nairobi Conference stressed the need for women to better equip themselves for a greater role in society. This requires greater commitment to the acquisition of new knowledge, attitudes skills and techniques for promoting the structural and technological transformations required if real change in the socio-economic conditions of women is to take place. Accordingly, the future situation of women in Africa will depend, to a large extent, on the capacity of the system to integrate human resources, particularly women, more effectively and more positively in the development efforts in our countries.

B. Recommendations

88. In line with the present review and appraisal of the implementation of the Strategies and the extent to which the implementation of the Strategies has brought about changes in the socio-economic conditions of women, the following recommendations are advanced:

(a) Considering the very low participation and contribution of women in the industrialization process, it is hereby recommended that attention be given to upgrade women's technical skills, education and training in science and technology to alleviate the burden of women's work in the field;

(b) Priority in national policy and planning should be given to the education of women in science and technology;

(c) Governments should create a women's industrial promotion and information service within the Ministry of Commerce and Industry in order to provide women with access to information on existing and forthcoming industrial opportunities for them with regard to education, skill and vocational training as well as possibilities of employment;

(d) Banking regulations and policies concerning industrial credit should be reviewed with the objective of modifying them to facilitate the financing of women's industrial projects;

(e) Governments should create or strengthen special assistance units for women industrialists and entrepreneurs, particularly in small- and medium-scale industries. Such units would assist women in the selection of technology appropriate to local conditions and in the preparation of projects for loan applications;

(f) Small farmer credit schemes particularly designed to meet the needs of women should be set up and supported financially. These could be done within existing agricultural finance institutions or through co-operatives;

(g) Some age-old customs and traditions have inculcated very negative perceptions and beliefs about women and their capabilities. There is urgent need to change these and instill self-confidence in rural women through education. Similarly, there is a need also to educate men on the negative impacts on women of some of the unprogressive traditional belief systems propagated by men and the need to change men's attitudes towards women;

(h) Governments should take action to reinforce legislation that provides for equality between men and women;

(i) The number of women in decision-making positions in governments, intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations should be increased.

Table 5.1: Economically active population: sectoral distribution female industry
(in percentage)

Subregion, Countries	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
NORTH AFRICA	21.00	21.35	21.70	22.05	22.40	22.65	22.90
Algeria	22.20	22.5	22.80	23.15	23.45	23.75	24.05
Egypt	17.20	17.55	17.90	18.25	18.60	18.90	19.20
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	13.55	13.90	14.25	14.60	14.95	15.35	15.65
Morocco	34.20	34.40	34.55	34.70	34.85	35.25	35.65
Sudan	4.10	4.30	4.50	4.70	4.90	5.15	5.45
Tunisia	45.75	46.75	47.65	48.50	49.10	49.65	50.25
WEST AFRICA	6.15	6.30	6.40	6.55	6.65	6.75	6.85
Benin	3.40	3.45	3.60	3.65	3.80	3.95	4.05
Burkina Faso	3.55	3.60	3.65	3.75	3.80	3.85	3.90
Cape Verde	22.10	22.25	22.45	22.60	22.80	22.95	23.15
Cote D'Ivoire	5.10	5.20	5.40	5.45	5.55	5.70	5.98
The Gambia	2.30	2.30	2.35	2.35	2.40	2.45	2.50
Ghana	16.15	16.35	16.55	16.70	16.90	17.15	17.30
Guinea	5.25	5.55	5.75	6.00	6.30	6.65	7.00
Guinea-Bissau	1.70	1.80	1.90	2.00	2.10	2.15	2.20
Liberia	1.55	1.60	1.65	1.70	1.75	1.80	1.85
Mali	3.45	3.50	3.55	3.60	3.65	3.70	3.75
Mauritania	3.35	3.55	3.75	4.00	4.35	4.50	4.65
Niger	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
Nigeria	6.80	6.90	7.05	7.15	7.25	7.35	7.40
Senegal	2.35	2.40	2.45	2.50	2.55	2.60	2.65
Sierra Leone	3.70	3.80	3.90	4.05	4.15	4.25	4.35
Togo	7.45	7.55	7.65	7.75	7.85	7.90	7.95
CENTRAL AFRICA	1.70	1.75	1.80	1.85	1.85	1.90	1.90
Burundi	1.05	1.05	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.10
Cameroon	3.20	3.40	3.55	3.75	3.95	4.20	4.35
Central African Republic	3.60	3.65	3.70	3.75	3.85	3.95	4.10
Chad	1.10	1.15	1.25	1.30	1.35	1.40	1.45
Congo	1.75	1.80	1.90	1.95	2.05	2.15	2.30
Equatorial Guinea	2.85	3.00	3.20	3.35	3.55	3.70	3.90
Gabon	2.55	2.65	2.75	2.95	3.15	3.30	3.40
Rwanda	0.65	0.65	0.65	0.70	0.70	0.75	0.80
Sao Tome and Principe	3.80	3.90	4.05	4.15	4.30	4.40	4.50
Zaire	1.50	1.55	1.55	1.60	1.65	1.70	1.75

Table 5.1: Economically active population: sectoral distribution - Female industry

(in percentage) (cont'd)

Subregion, countries	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA	3.05	3.10	3.20	3.30	3.40	3.50	3.60
Angola	1.65	1.65	1.70	1.70	1.75	1.80	1.85
Botswana	2.10	2.20	2.45	2.60	2.80	3.00	3.20
Comoros	2.70	2.60	2.45	2.30	2.20	2.10	2.00
Djibouti	2.20	2.10	2.05	1.90	1.85	1.85	1.80
Ethiopia	6.35	6.55	6.80	7.00	7.25	7.50	7.70
Kenya	2.80	2.95	3.00	3.10	3.20	3.35	3.45
Lesotho	2.05	2.15	2.25	2.35	2.45	2.65	2.90
Madagascar	1.75	1.80	1.90	2.00	2.10	2.20	2.30
Malawi	2.35	2.50	2.70	2.85	3.05	3.20	3.40
Mauritius	13.10	13.20	13.35	13.45	13.55	13.70	13.90
Mozambique	0.80	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.90	0.90	0.90
Seychelles	7.85	8.90	10.00	11.05	12.15	3.20	14.30
Somalia	1.75	1.70	1.70	1.65	1.65	1.60	1.60
Swaziland	3.45	3.60	3.75	3.90	4.05	4.20	4.35
Tanzania, United Republic of	1.65	1.60	1.50	1.45	1.30	1.30	1.25
Uganda	2.05	2.15	2.30	2.40	2.55	2.65	2.80
Zambia	2.75	2.80	2.80	2.85	2.85	2.90	2.95
Zimbabwe	3.60	3.70	3.75	3.85	3.90	3.95	4.00
TOTAL AFRICA	5.10	5.25	5.35	5.50	5.60	5.75	5.90

Table 5.2: Economically active population: Sectoral distribution - Male industry
(in percentage)

Subregions, countries	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
NORTH AFRICA	21.10	21.45	21.75	22.05	22.35	22.75	23.10
Algeria	27.80	28.20	28.55	28.90	29.20	29.70	30.10
Egypt	20.85	21.05	21.25	21.45	21.65	21.90	22.15
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	30.45	30.70	31.05	31.30	31.55	31.80	32.15
Morocco	23.50	23.95	24.40	24.80	25.20	25.70	26.15
Sudan	8.70	9.00	9.30	9.60	9.85	10.25	10.55
Tunisia	34.80	35.30	35.85	36.30	36.85	37.40	37.90
WEST AFRICA	12.65	12.80	12.95	13.05	13.20	13.40	13.60
Benin	10.15	10.55	10.70	11.05	11.20	11.55	11.75
Burkina Faso	5.10	5.15	5.20	5.25	5.35	5.45	5.60
Cape Verde	23.50	23.95	24.35	24.75	25.20	25.70	26.10
Cote d'Ivoire	10.30	10.65	10.85	11.15	11.40	11.75	12.05
The Gambia	10.25	10.35	10.45	10.55	10.65	10.75	10.90
Ghana	19.40	19.70	19.95	20.20	20.55	20.90	21.30
Guinea	12.20	12.50	12.80	13.05	13.30	13.60	13.90
Guinea Bissau	5.05	5.10	5.20	5.25	5.35	5.40	5.50
Liberia	12.95	12.90	12.85	12.80	12.85	12.90	12.95
Mali	1.80	1.85	1.90	1.95	2.05	2.10	2.20
Mauritania	10.65	10.85	11.05	11.20	11.40	11.65	11.95
Niger	3.15	3.25	3.35	3.45	3.55	3.70	3.85
Nigeria	14.65	14.75	14.85	14.95	15.05	15.20	15.35
Senegal	9.05	9.10	9.15	9.25	9.30	9.35	9.40
Sierra Leone	20.05	20.50	20.85	21.25	21.65	22.15	22.65
Togo	11.50	11.75	12.00	12.10	12.20	12.40	12.55

CENTRAL AFRICA	14.10	14.40	14.70	15.00	15.30	15.65	15.95
Burundi	3.85	3.95	4.15	4.25	4.35	4.55	4.65
Cameroon	11.80	12.40	13.00	13.60	14.10	14.70	15.30
Central African Republic	9.00	9.05	9.10	9.15	9.20	9.25	9.30
Chad	5.95	6.25	6.55	6.75	7.00	7.35	7.65
Congo	18.85	18.90	18.95	19.00	19.05	19.10	19.15
Equatorial Guinea	18.10	18.50	18.85	19.25	19.65	20.05	20.40
Gabon	16.25	16.55	16.85	17.05	17.40	17.75	18.10
Rwanda	5.25	5.35	5.40	5.45	5.55	5.65	5.75
Sao Tome and Principe	20.80	21.70	22.60	23.50	24.40	25.30	26.20
Zaire	20.20	20.55	20.85	21.20	21.50	21.85	22.20

Table 5.2: Economically Active Population: Sectoral Distribution - Male - Industry

(In Percentage) (cont'd)

Subregions, countries	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
East and Southern Africa	10.30	10.45	10.55	10.70	10.80	11.05	11.25
Angola	14.90	14.95	15.00	15.05	15.10	15.20	15.30
Botswana	19.70	19.95	20.20	20.50	20.80	21.20	21.50
Comoros	7.50	7.55	7.60	7.70	7.80	7.95	8.15
Djibouti	10.70	10.80	10.90	11.00	11.10	11.20	11.30
Ethiopia	9.20	9.45	9.60	9.80	10.00	10.25	10.50
Kenya	9.80	9.90	10.05	10.25	10.40	10.55	10.70
Lesotho	5.95	6.00	6.00	6.05	6.10	6.15	6.15
Madagascar	9.20	9.45	9.55	9.75	9.95	10.10	10.25
Malawi	11.55	11.95	12.40	12.80	13.25	13.65	14.10
Mauritius	27.50	27.45	27.40	27.35	27.30	27.25	27.20
Mozambique	14.15	14.35	14.60	14.80	15.00	15.25	15.45
Seychelles	31.00	31.70	32.40	33.10	33.80	34.50	35.20
Somalia	13.25	13.35	13.45	13.55	13.70	13.95	14.20
Swaziland	13.15	13.65	14.20	14.70	15.25	15.80	16.30
Tanzania, United Repbulic of	7.40	7.40	7.45	7.45	7.50	7.50	7.55
Uganda	6.35	6.35	6.40	6.45	6.50	5.85	6.85
Zambia	12.70	12.85	13.05	13.20	13.35	13.65	13.90
Zimbabwe	14.45	14.60	14.75	14.95	15.10	15.25	15.40
TOTAL AFRICA	13.95	14.15	14.35	14.55	14.80	15.05	15.35

Table 1.3: Number of Pupils enrolled at the second level (female) (1965-1987) (in percentage)

Subregions, countries	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
NORTH AFRICA						
Algeria	765700*	827808	863010*	899700	976566*	1060000*
Egypt	1514049	1778294*	1685449	1814183*	1952750*	2101900*
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	...	...	...	...	...	...
Morocco	474706	504636	534843	555272*	576481*	598500*
Sudan	235400	245900	260329*	275606*	291778*	308900*
Tunisia	183580	188589	199461	218693*	239780*	262900*
North Africa	...	...	...	...	...	...
WEST AFRICA						
Benin	30590	29471	28500	31368*	34525*	38000*
Burkina Faso	17991	20245	23500*	26605*	30120*	34100*
Cape Verde	2400	2599	2800*	3016*	3249*	3500*
Cote d'Ivoire	85700	94485*	104170*	114848*	126621*	139600*
Gambia	4746	4861*	4979*	5100*	6143*	7400*
Ghana	301124*	320816*	337834	342621*	347476*	352400*
Guinea	24493	21068	21833*	22626*	23448*	24300*
Guinea-Bissau	1800*	1621	1842*	2092*	2377*	2700*
Liberia	12900*	12700*	12389*	12085*	11789*	11500*
Mali	19900*	19036*	19238	19777*	20331*	20900*
Mauritania	9408*	10890	11706	13334*	15188*	17300*
Niger	15000*	15400*	16602*	17897*	19294*	20800*
Nigeria	986600*	1085816*	1195009*	1315182*	1447441*	1593000*
Senegal	42937	45805	48865	53741*	59103*	65000*
Sierra Leone	29590	31608	33980	35106*	...	55400*
Togo	22983	23168	28383	28718*	29057*	29400*
West Africa	1608162*	1739589*	1891630*	2044116*	...	2415300*

Table 1.3: Number of pupils enrolled at the second level (female) (1965-1987) (cont'd)

SUBREGIONS, COUNTRIES	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
CENTRAL AFRICA						
Burundi	8791	10397	11100	14048*	17779*	22500*
Cameroon	134149	153228	166897	178535*	190983*	204300*
Central African Republic	15985	14620	12870	14366*	16036*	17900*
Chad	7100	7150*	7200*	8086*	9082*	10200*
Congo	96908	104145	90899	...	...	...
Equatorial Guinea	1100	1344*	1643*	2008*	2453*	2998*
Gabon	18900*	19827*	20800*	...	...	...
Rwanda	6235	7042	...	...	...	...
Sao Tome and Principe	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zaire	362000*	296747	324591*	355047*	388360*	424800*
Central Africa Total	...	...	...	...	...	...
EAST AND SOUTHERN AFRICA						
Angola	...	...	...	...	...	...
Botswana	19163	20749	23100	25175*	27436*	29900*
Comoros	8169	8432	7562	7041	8841*	11100*
Djibouti	2086	2342	2462	2651	3604*	4900*
Ethiopia	258200	291768*	329700*	343820*	358545*	373900*
Kenya	175684	198604	222717	231440	268072*	310100*
Lesotho	21000	22000	24529*	27350*	30494*	34000*
Madagascar	234200*	210478*	189160*	170000*	180006*	190600*
Malawi	8135	8902	9203	9903	10810*	11800*
Mauritius	34232	33417	34300*	35429*	38506	37800*
Mozambique	47398	50982	38690	40415*	42217*	41100*
Seychelles	1997	1876	1805	1856	...	...
Somalia	15300	14694	14696*	14697*	14699*	14700*
Swaziland	15811	15897	16841	17545	19377*	21400*
Tanzania, United Republic of	33588	39578	44724	48032*	51585*	55400*
Uganda	82000*	92100	103308*	115880*	129982*	145800*
Zambia	50700*	53200*	57756*	62702*	68071*	73900
Zimbabwe	195000	216000	251000	268000	...	...
East and Southern Africa Total	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL AFRICA	...	...	...	...	...	...

Source: ECA Secretariat
* = Estimated number enrolled
... = Data not available

Table 1.4: Number of pupils enrolled at the third level (female) (1965-1987)

Subregions, Countries	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
NORTH AFRICA						
Algeria	41558	50685	55604*	61000*	68507*	79200*
Egypt	254528	...	264301	300358*	341334*	387900*
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	8000*	...	...	...	...	...
Morocco	54000	61760*	70636	78268*	86728*	96100*
Sudan	13742	14000*	14824*	15697*	16621*	17600*
Tunisia	14824	14967	16305	17627*	19055*	20600*
North Africa total	386652*	...	...	...	...	...
WEST AFRICA						
Benin	1427	1397	1400*	1292*	1192*	1100*
Burkina Faso	900*	1057	1100*	1343*	1639*	2000*
Cape Verde	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cote d'Ivoire	4200*	4729*	5324*	5995*	6750*	7600*
The Gambia	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ghana	3600	3650*	3700*	4035*	4401*	4800*
Guinea	1267	923	693	855*	1054*	1300*
Guinea Bissau	...	...	...	...	...	...
Liberia	1100*	1128*	1157	1171*	1185*	1200*
Mali	874	728	700*	761*	828*	900*
Mauritania	600*	646*	695	758*	826*	900*
Niger	557*	590	616*	643*	671*	700*
Nigeria	29900*	33018*	36462*	40264*	44463*	49100*
Senegal	2700*	3074*	3500*	3749*	4015*	4300*
Sierra Leone	458	374	490*	641*	840*	1100*
Togo	678	753	1100*	1320*	1584	1900*
West Africa total	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 1.4: Number of pupils enrolled at the third level (female) (1965-1987) (Cont'd)

Subregions, countries	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
CENTRAL AFRICA						
Burundi	676	738	814	900*	995*	1100*
Cameroon	2300*	4181	4282*	4385*	4491*	4600*
Central African Republic	287	326*	371	346*	322*	300*
Chad	200*	...	200*	...	...	200*
Congo	1665	...	...	...	...	...
Equatorial Guinea	200	...	...	...	...	400*
Gabon	1000*	1173	1200*	...	...	...
Rwanda	269	247	362	374*	387*	400*
Sao Tome and Principe	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zaire	4000*	4200*	3954*	3723*	3505*	3300*
Central Africa Total	...	...	...	...	...	...
EAST and SOUTHERN AFRICA						
Angola	...	...	...	...	...	...
Botswana	602*	814*	1100*	1272*	1470*	1700*
Comoros	16	...	74	...	...	...
Djibouti	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ethiopia	4881	5003	5029	6303*	7899*	9900*
Kenya	5710	2993	4808	6918	...	13000*
Lesotho	1500*	1634*	1780*	1939*	2112*	2300*
Madagascar	14703	14329	15141*	16000*	13506*	11400*
Malawi	1129	1111	1100*	1220*	1353*	1500*
Mauritius	421	367	576	756*	991*	1300*
Mozambique	332	360*	516	...	...	500*
Seychelles	...	...	...	...	...	...
Somalia	2400*	2337*	2275*	2215*	2157*	2100*
Swaziland	900*	900*	900*	1043*	1208*	1400*
Tanzania, United Republic of	710	689	641	767*	919*	1100*
Uganda	2349	3098	3639*	4275*	5022*	5900*
Zambia	1900*	1900*	2130*	2387*	2676*	3000*
Zimbabwe	...	5932	...	...	...	...
East and Southern Africa Total	...	...	...	...	...	...
TOTAL AFRICA	...	...	...	...	...	...

Source: ECA Secretariat
* = Estimated number enrolled
... = Data not available

Table 3.1: Number of pupils enrolled at the first level (male) (1965-1987)

Subregions, Countries	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
NORTH AFRICA						
Algeria	1965131	2035874	2119137	2170012	2231658*	2295000*
Egypt	529676	3726459	4025896	4170616*	4320007*	4473400*
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	418053*	432853*	448003*	463683*	...	...
Morocco	1408723	1373092	1336023	1375336*	1415497*	1456500*
Sudan	1035354	1052238	1113551*	1178433*	1147092*	1319700*
Tunisia	716673	735251	743924	757448*	771183*	785100*
North Africa total	9073610*	9355767*	9786534*	10115528*	...	...
WEST AFRICA						
Benin	295281	293700	306673	311680	335371*	360800*
Burkina Faso	221968	246116	258570	275726*	293653*	313000*
Cape Verde	29284	30638	30604	30575*	30546*	30500*
Cote d'Ivoire	720804	74700	793155*	842215*	894069*	95790*
The Gambia	44800	45652	45591*	45133	46193*	50300*
Ghana	906100	888750	879600	925829*	974584*	1025700*
Guinea	188894	187096	199516	201745*	203964*	206200*
Guinea Bissau	50800	49833	52203*	54686*	57283*	60000*
Liberia	83200	81200	84753*	88421*	92203*	96100*
Mali	183520	187805	193193	201495*	2101961*	219100*
Mauritania	84500	92610	92752	97917*	103331*	109000*
Niger	163921	188011	198040*	203047	222186*	243100*
Nigeria	6509770	7689456*	8178275*	8698065*	9250781*	9838500*
Senegal	348571	362748	379219	396032*	413582*	431900*
Sierra Leone	234300	234327*	234056*	233463*	260191*	289600*
Togo	290492	320584	329479	340989*	352828*	365000*
West Africa total						
CENTRAL AFRICA						
Burundi	224463	258978	306529	329483*	354426*	380600*
Cameroon	927497	973473	1008525*	1044923*	1082630*	1121400*
Central African Republic	188688	169148	177194	183741*	190582*	197300*
Chad	242293	224790	299521	3109991*	328693*	353800*
Congo	228648	233285	262673	258802*	...	...
Equatorial Guinea	36200	37206*	38230*	39272*	40330*	41400*
Gabon	93127	96187	98500	101300*	104181*	107163*
Rwanda	427796	459338	491206	512078*	533830*	556500*
Sao Tome and Principe	8540*	8835	9336	9762*	10206*	...
Zaire	2823645	2333373	2426799*	25236313*	2623913*	3727800*
Central Africa total	5200897*	4794613*	5118513*	5313965*	...	...

Table 3.1: Number of pupils enrolled at the first level (male) (1965-1987) (cont'd)

Subregions, Countries	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
EAST AND SOUTHERN AFRICA						
Angola	488000*	508000*	528000*	549995*	...	...
Botswana	106423	113693	115324*	123905*	133064*	143000*
Comoros	36587	35371	36243	37026	39956*	43100*
Djibouti	14789	15959	16776	17352	18680*	20100*
Ethiopia	1491243	1682278	1787000	1854713*	1924528*	1996700*
Kenya	2434903	2513000	2603986	2746530*	2896792*	3055300*
Lesotho	139316	142000	150110*	158679*	167733*	177300*
Madagascar	828400	807095*	786333*	766100*	815163*	867300*
Malawi	533812	573244	593249	632426*	634188*	718700*
Mauritius	71186	73251	72920	70969	69845	70900*
Mozambique	701973	706924	722894	753582*	785566*	818900*
Seychelles	7295	7395	7297	7286	7279*	...
Somalia	128146	144318*	162440*	182731*	205431*	230800*
Swaziland	70303	71475	74215	76907	80566*	84400*
Tanzania, United Republic of	1589629	1577944	1585108	1668790*	1756719*	1849400*
Uganda	1156800	1207640	1261137*	1316606*	1374083*	1433600*
Zambia	712788	716147	755006*	795974*	839165*	884700*
Zimbabwe	1141305	1153597	1146000	1123000	...	...
East and Southern Africa Total	11652898*	12049331*	12404038*	12882571*	...	..
TOTAL AFRICA	36283619*	37845237*	39564764*	41259082*	...	...

Source: ECA Secretariat
* = Estimated number enrolled
... = Data not available

Table 3.2: Number of pupils enrolled at the first level (female) (1965-1987)

Sub-regions, countries	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
NORTH AFRICA						
Algeria	1516157	1599458	1682514	1741376	1804012*	1868900*
Egypt	2684574	2887044	3008721	3179623*	3360257*	3551200*
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	370727*	383851*	397286*	411191*	...	...
Morocco	871164	854868	840824	886161*	933942*	984300*
Sudan	702987	714500	754002*	795688*	839678*	886100*
Tunisia	574817	591290	601997	619925*	638387*	657400*
North Africa total	6720426*	7031011*	7285344*	7633964*	...	..
WEST AFRICA						
Benin	148882	151300*	155375	158597	174501*	192000*
Burkina Faso	129838	144298	153300	169304*	186980*	206500*
Cape Verde	28625	29588	29690*	29780*	29896*	30000*
Cote d'Ivoire	500898	507390	552529*	601704*	655256*	713500*
The Gambia	28100	28903*	29502*	28540	29526*	33300*
Ghana	689700	676486	702270	740285*	780334*	822600*
Guinea	87544	83044	89398	92209*	95105*	98100*
Guinea-Bissau	26200	27171	28759*	30438*	32216*	34100*
Liberia	44800	43800	47366*	51222*	55392*	59900*
Mali	108875	111108	114394	121511*	129071*	137100*
Mauritania	56362	57995	64464	70130*	76294*	83000*
Niger	99241	105178	110138*	114793*	127898*	142500*
Nigeria	5685100	6077777*	6497576*	6946371*	7426165*	7939100*
Senegal	235319	248198	262844	276507*	290880*	3060000*
Sierra Leone	170400	179787*	189691*	200141*	211167*	222800*
Togo	182106	200269	208857	221135*	234135*	247900*
West Africa total	8221990	8672292*	9236153*	9852667*	10534789*	11268400*

.../

Table 3.2: Number of pupils enrolled at the first level (female) (1965-1987) (cont'd)

Subregions, Countries	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
CENTRAL AFRICA						
Burundi	161473	193446	229000	249199*	271129*	295100*
Cameroon	777820	821781	854326*	888157*	923328*	959909*
Central African Republic	120963	105031	109228	117162*	125668*	134800*
Chad	95323	85137	119885	130209*	141407*	153600*
Congo	231062	242520	235915	232232*	...	...
Equatorial Guinea	32000	33675*	35436*	37290*	39240*	41300*
Gabon	90480	95093	96500	99659*	102917*	106283*
Rwanda	409081	445040	478702	501559*	525508*	550600*
Sao Tome and Principe	8139*	8175	8759	9086*	9426*	...
Zaire	1827111	1822656	1929458*	2042518*	2162203*	2288900*
Central Africa total	3753457*	3852554	4097206*	4307071*	...	...
EAST AND SOUTHERN AFRICA						
Angola	416000*	432000*	450000*	468746*	...	...
Botswana	117185	122248	124000*	133374*	143510*	154300*
Comoros	28241	27033	28494	29300	32613*	36300*
Djibouti	10423	11176	12176	12481	13909*	15500*
Ethiopia	957535	1054239	1097000	1164909*	1237017*	1313600*
Kenya	2267511	2330432	2427354	2580150*	2742564*	2915200*
Lesotho	174687	177000	185776*	194987*	294654*	214800*
Madagascar	771600	754570*	737915*	721628	757998*	796200*
Malawi	408727	449221	473393	503004*	534468*	567900*
Mauritius	69528	71446	71210	69166	68084	69100*
Mozambique	546101	553558	564787	591325*	619110*	648200*
Seychelles	7073	7195	7179	7165	7158*	...
Somalia	66189	77546*	90852*	106441*	124704*	146100*
Swaziland	69042	70731	73528	76080	79513*	83100*
Tanzania, United Republic of	1580130	1580895	1574618	1680851*	1794251*	1915300*
Uganda	858200	996184	1067201*	1143281*	1224785*	1312100*
Zambia	635530	641567	676621*	713591*	752580*	793700*
Zimbabwe	1073658	1119141	1105000	1089000	...	...
East and Southern Africa total	10057360*	10476182*	10767104*	11285479*	...	...
TOTAL AFRICA	28753233*	30032039*	31385810*	33079181*	...	...

Source: ECA Secretariat
* = Estimated number enrolled
... = Data not available